Cartoon by Hendrik Willem Van Loon

THE SURVEY

MIDMONTHLY

JANUARY 15, 1924

The Bok Peace Plan
In Full

Whoso Liveth to Himself
A Peace Message
by Jane Addams

How Cleveland and Cincinnati Got That Way
William J. Norton

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SOCIAL PRACTICE

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A Glimpse Ahead

The New Pied Pipers

By Neva R. Deardorff

THE Pied Piper had more of a problem on his hands than the Old Woman Who Lived in a Shoe. Hers was merely mathematical. His involved not only food and shelter and discipline but all those elements that enter into a child welfare program. We have modern counterparts of the Pied Piper in the great orphanages. Here is one surrounded by a high wall and sustained by royalties from the coal fields. Here is another, product of a prosperous chocolate business and a warm human heart. Launched a hundred years later it repeats unchanged certain phrases of the earlier bequest. And here is another in the Middle West, not the creation of a millionaire but of dues-paying members of a popular fraternal order.

Girard College, Carson College, Hershey School for Boys, Mooseheart, the New York Orphanage—five types in all—are the subjects of Miss Deardorff's sympathetic but searching scrutiny. The family that is costing one institution alone $7,000 a year is but one item in the bill these Pipers pay. And this in spite of the fact that progressive thought in the child welfare movement has long since crystallized in another direction—*in keeping children in their own homes, or placing them in other equally good ones.*

Going to Jerusalem

By Julian W. Mack

AMONG lawyers Judge Mack is known as one of the foremost jurists of the United States Circuit Bench, among social workers for his earlier service in the Juvenile Court of Chicago, among employers and employes for his arbitration work in the garment trades. In the field of international relations he is known for other things—for his activity at Paris in securing the protection of racial minorities in the peace treaties, for his part in the Zionist movement, and especially as one of that insurgent American group which has thrown its emphasis on social and economic reconstruction. Judge Mack recently visited the homeland of the Jew, the Holy Land of the Christian, and has set down his impressions in an article which runs back through the centuries and looks forward into the future.

The Oncoming Generation

By Rossa B. Cooley

WE associate freedom with the road; with the long struggle of humanity pressing forward. Miss Cooley associates it with the home. But her series on The Homes of the Free has none the less been a chronicle of struggle, of the pressing forward of a people. They have interpreted the part of the Negro women who came out of the shadow of slavery and set up rudimentary households in the cotton lands which had known only the great plantation houses on the one hand, the slave street on the other. She has told of the grandmothers, of the mothers, and in her concluding article she will tell of the young women of the third generation—of the new Negro girl in the new rural South, trained to the task not of My Lady's maid in some one's else household nor that of a cook in a restaurant, but trained primarily as all round country home-maker and all that this envisages.

The Effect of Science on Social Institutions

By Bertrand Russell

"SOME people think that we keep our rooms too hot for health, others that we keep them too cold. If this were a political question, one party would maintain that the best temperature is the absolute zero, the other that it is the melting point of iron. Those who maintained any intermediate position would be abused as timorous time-servers, concealed agents of the other side, men who ruined the enthusiasm of a sacred cause by tepid appeals to mere reason. Any man who had the courage to say that our rooms ought to be neither too hot nor too cold would be abused by both parties, and probably shot in No Man's Land. Possibly some day politics may become more rational, but so far there is not the faintest indication of a change in this direction." Just one of a succession of brilliant paragraphs by Bertrand Russell in which the English philosopher will discuss The Effect of Science on Social Institutions.

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THE SURVEY

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The Gist of It

THE helium atom travels fifteen thousand miles faster than a rifle bullet. Professor Harkins of Chicago has taken its picture in the act. But the idea of peace travels more slowly. Some folks doubt whether it will ever catch up with the rifle bullet. Mr. Bok has, however, given it a fresh charge and touched it off again, while the American public stands hopefully on tiptoe to watch it go. The Survey says godspeed.

THERE are elements from which energy pours without the need of outside stimulation. Jane Addams has long been such a radioactive personality in the cause of peace. She has preached it when obloquy, not public acclaim and prize money, was the reward. The Survey is glad to set her peace message for the new year (p. 373) beside the $100,000 plan.

MR. BOK'S characteristic contribution to peace-education is briefly reviewed (p. 371) by Mrs. Catlin, for some years managing editor of The Independent, then associated with Mr. Bok in the Netherlands-American Foundation, and since October 1922 an associate editor of The Survey. Her recent resignation from the staff interrupts a service, distinguished by a sure-fingered handling of both editorial matter and art features, which has done much to give form and finish to The Survey and particularly Survey Graphic.

HENDRIK WILLEM VAN LOON is back again after resting and writing in Europe. While he writes The Story of America he will, with his engaging drawings (there's one on p. 370), help The Survey keep abreast of the social adventure of our time.

IT takes courage and faith to discern a pattern of peace in the whirling dance of Europe. Alpha Buse, who reviews hopefully the new books on European affairs (p. 413), was on the staff of the Prague Survey and has recently returned from a year's study at the London School of Economics.

NEW YORK will celebrate at the Town Hall, on January 24, the 21st birthday of the Tenement House Department, a foster-child of the Charity Organization Society. J. J. Murphy, who telescopes its history on p. 383, has shared in it both as tenement house commissioner and, more recently, as secretary of the tenement-house committee of the C. O. S.

THE Oregon ranch story (p. 407) is told by the editor of the welfare department of the Portland Oregonian. The vocational opportunities of hop-picking should be considered by Dexter M. Keezer, of the economics department in the University of Colorado (p. 404).

EDUCATION is changing, just as everything else is changing, in central Europe. Professor Puckett, who teaches German in Barnard College, sketches some alterations of form and spirit (p. 401).

IT is related of an earnest young divinity student that when he was called upon in a gathering of his fellows to lead in prayer he murmured "Oh Lord, make our motives approximately pure." Such humility is always becoming to an editor who deals with the delicate stuff of human aspirations. In November, Survey Midmonthly published what seemed to the editors an innocent and amusing contribution, a good-natured presentation of the ironical lag between social programs and social accomplishments, under the title Leaflets Free on Request. Some of The Survey's good friends have taken exception to this sketch on the ground that it tended to bring into ridicule an undoubtedly useful publication, and to cast a slur on the whole movement for mental hygiene. To such a charge we can only reply by pointing—not without pride—to the distinguished contributors who have been using or are about to use The Survey as a means of broadcasting information in furtherance of this movement: Dr. Thom and Dr. Pratt of Massachusetts, Dr. Frankwood Williams of the National Committee, Dr. Glueck and Dr. Wile, of New York, Dr. Adolph Meyer of Baltimore, and others. When The Survey stresses in nearly every number the work of such leaders, it can hardly be accused of indifference or hostility to their aims. The editors beg to assure their critics that their motives are at least approximately pure.

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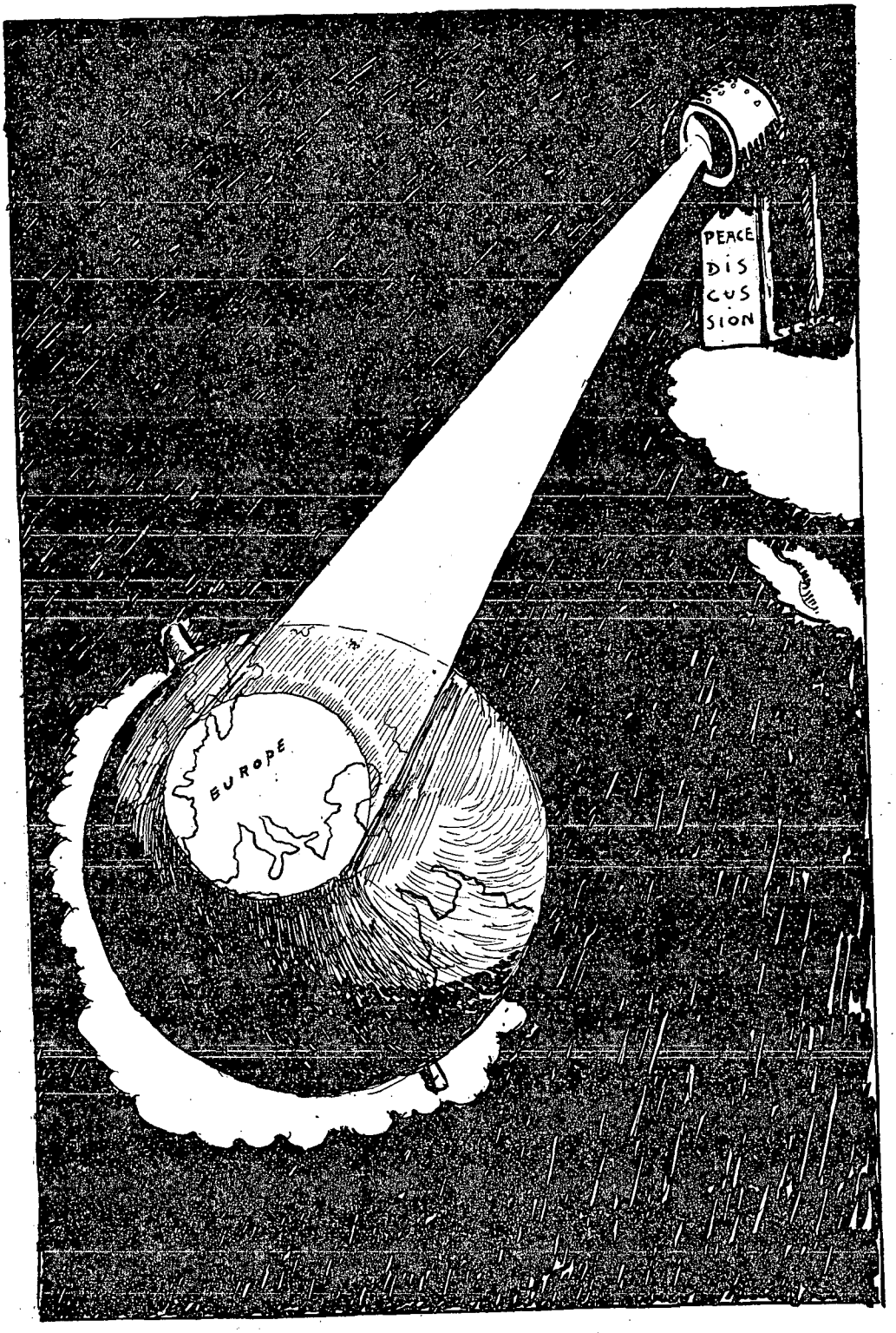

Drawn by Hendrik Willem Van Loon

"LIGHTS, PLEASE"

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THE SURVEY

MIDMONTHLY

January 15
1924

Volume LI
No. 8

Mr. Bok Sets Us All Talking

"THIS is the psychological time," said Edward W. Bok in July, 1923, "to crystallize public opinion on the question of the United States' responsibility for preventing wars. . . . The world is ready to follow a practical enlightened sentiment toward permanent peace if a voice powerful enough to be heard will sound the way."

The genius of the man who made the Ladies Home Journal one of the most sensational publishing successes in history lay in recognizing the psychological time and sensing the psychology of his audience all the time. In the six months since he made the pronouncement just quoted and offered $100,000 to make his point, individuals, groups, clubs, organizations, faculties of colleges, entire communities, even a complete state, have been thinking, planning, talking, studying, discussing, and writing Peace. So much has been accomplished, whether or not the plan which won the offered prize meets popular approval, whether or not it comes to favorable action in the Senate, whether or not it is translated into international organization. None of these things is so important for the safety of the world as that people everywhere should live familiarly with the concept of peace.

MR. BOK'S award was to go to the American citizen submitting the most practicable plan "whereby the United States can take its place and do its share toward preserving world peace." Half of the prize was to be paid the author as soon as the winning plan was chosen, the other half "if or when the plan is approved by the United States Senate or has been demonstrated by general referendum to have won an adequate degree of popular support." The name of the winner will not be announced until a general expression of opinion has been secured.

Over a quarter of a million people wrote to the office of the American Peace Award for more detailed information so that they might enter the competition. Newspapers throughout the country published the conditions of the award with editorial comment, for the most part enthusiastic in approval. Bulletins were posted in libraries all over the United States and in post offices and public buildings. By November 15, when the contest closed, 22,165 fully worked out plans had been submitted.

THE American Peace Award committee, with Esther Everett Lape as member in charge, was overwhelmed by offers of cooperation. Ninety-three national organizations, with a total membership of over fifty millions, formed a Cooperating Council to distribute ballots for the nation-wide referendum stipulated by Mr. Bok to give the American people a chance to express their opinion of the plan which won the award. They include such varying viewpoints as the American Legion, the General Federation of Women's Clubs, the American Academy of Political and Social Science, the Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen and Enginemen, the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America, the Rotary International, the Jewish Welfare Board, the National Catholic Welfare Council, and the National Education Association. Thousands of newspapers are also helping to conduct the referendum; 120,000 ministers will present the winning plan to their congregations, five hundred colleges and universities have arranged to make it the subject of student discussion. It is published in full on following pages of this issue so that Survey readers may express their considered opinion on its merits. A ballot for indicating a yes-or-no judgment will be found on the next page.

The response, says Mr. Bok, "has fulfilled and transcended any expectation that one may have had for the project." The prescription for world peace is not in printed words, but in the will of the people. And Mr. Bok has found a way to focus the thoughts of millions of us on "practicable means for preserving peace."

HANNAH WHITE CATLIN

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Peace Plan No. 1469

The Proposal That Won the American Peace Award

There is not room for more than one organization to promote international cooperation

FIVE-SIXTHS of all nations, including about four-fifths of mankind, have already created a world-organization, the purpose of which is "to promote international cooperation and to achieve international peace and security."

Those nations cannot and will not abandon this system which has now been actively operating for three and a half years. If leading members of the United States government ever had serious hopes that another association of nations could be formed, such hopes were dispelled during the Washington Conference by plain intimations from other Powers that there is not room for more than one organization like the League of Nations.

The States outside the organized world are not of such a character that the United States could hopefully cooperate with them for the purpose named.

Therefore, the only possible path to cooperation in which the United States can take an increasing share is that which leads toward some form of agreement with the world as now organized, called the League of Nations.

By sheer force of social international gravitation such cooperation becomes inevitable.

The United States has already gone far in cooperation with the League of Nations

The United States government, theoretically maintaining a policy of isolation, has actually gone far, since March 4, 1921, toward "cooperation with other nations to achieve and preserve the peace of the world."

The most familiar part of the story is the work of the Washington Conference, wherein President Harding's Administration made a beginning of naval disarmament, opened to China a prospect of rehabilitation and joined with Great Britain, Japan and France to make the Pacific Ocean worthy of its name.

Later came the recommendation that the United States should adhere to the Permanent Court of International Justice.

Not long after that action President Harding wrote to Bishop Gailor:

"I do not believe any man can confront the responsibility of a President of the United States and yet adhere to the idea that it is possible for our country to maintain an attitude of isolation and aloofness in the world."

But since the proposed adhesion to the Permanent Court would bring this country into close contact at one time and point with the League of Nations, and since such action is strenuously opposed for exactly that reason, it is pertinent to inquire not only how much cooperation with the League and its organs has been proposed during the life of the present Administration, but also how much has been actually begun.

Officially or unofficially the United States is represented on many League commissions

The United States government has accredited its representatives to sit as members "in an unofficial and consulting capacity" upon four of the most important social welfare commissions of the League, viz.: Health, Opium, Traffic in Women and Children and Anthrax (Industrial Hygiene).

Our Government is a full member of the International Hydrographic Bureau, an organ of the League. Our Government was represented by an "unofficial observer" in the Brussels Conference (Finance and Economic Commission) in 1920. It sent Hon. Stephen G. Porter and Bishop Brent to represent it at the meeting of the Opium Commission last May.

Our Public Health Service has taken part in the Serological Congresses of the Epidemics Commission and has helped in the experimental work for the standardization of serums.

Our Government collaborates with the League Health Organization through the International Office of Public Health at Paris, and with the Agriculture Committee of the League Labor Organization through the International Institute of Agriculture at Rome.

In February, 1923, Secretary Hughes and President Harding formally recommended that the Senate approve our adhesion to the Permanent Court under four conditions or reservations, one of which was that the United States should officially participate in the election of judges by the Assembly and Council of the League, sitting as electoral colleges for that purpose.

Unofficial cooperation from the United States with the work of the League includes mem- (*Continued on page 417*)

THE SURVEY
New York

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"Whoso Liveth to Himself"

A Message to Believers in Peace and Freedom

By Jane Addams

OF ALL the holiday utterances, none other will have such reach among the highways and hedges of human kind as the message which went out from Hull House to representatives in 32 countries of the Women's International League. In more than one sense Miss Addams has the gift of tongues;—her words, to use Kipling's phrase, are such as "march through the hearts of men."

Hers was a Christmas message; but it is intrinsically one for the new year and for the new decade.

At the conference held at The Hague a year ago last December the Women's International League for Peace and Freedom formally requested Miss Addams, as its president, to write such a Christmas message to the various sections. She accepted the commission but did not fulfill it until a year later, following her trip eastward down the Mediterranean and the Red Sea, through India, China, Japan and the Philippines; a trip which gave her new contacts with the movements and aspirations which in these post-war years are astir among the peoples of the East as they are of the West. Her message then, went out on Christmas day last, to sections and corresponding societies in Austria, Australia, Belgium, Bulgaria, Canada, China, Korea, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Great Britain, Greece, Hungary, India, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Jugoslavia, Mexico, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, Roumania, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Ukraine, Uruguay.

THE desire for Peace and Good Will perpetually renewed in the hearts of men on Christmas Day is, in this year of our Lord 1923, shadowed by a compunction and by a curious sense of futility.

We know the world is not at peace nor is there enough active good will in it to accomplish the healing of the nations. Conscious that we have all failed in a new reach of human understanding, in moral energy adequate to repair the ravages of a world war, in a fellowship warm enough to melt down national animosities, we stand shamefaced in the midst of the Christmas rejoicing.

In the hope that this uneasiness may be but the beginnings of remorse, but the stirrings of that self-abasement which inevitably precedes a great spiritual awakening, the following Christmas message recalls the words of Him whose birthday we celebrate.

THE divided nations of Europe in a panic of apprehension lest old enemies seek revenge, lest sudden social changes destroy established governments, are constantly gripped by the fear of unemployment, of revolution, of bankruptcy, of starvation.

Baffled and frightened statesmen stand helpless amid a ruined social fabric and see no way out. It is as if He had never uttered the words "Love alone can cast out fear," or as if He had never given a basic command to His followers, "Be just and fear not."

As these statesmen celebrate Christmas Day may they be convinced that only Love and longing for Justice can remove distrust and desire for revenge, can repair the confidence and good will essential to the comity of nations, can recover economic security and moral stability to peoples so recently fostered into habits of hatred and suspicion and at last restore Peace to a continent distracted by long continued warfare.

THE United States of America, caught in a traditional distrust and dislike of "foreign entanglements," abandons the solemn covenants made in her name, restricts her immigration, increases her tariffs, and refuses to consider her war loans as part of an international responsibility. Although producing beyond her own needs and increasing her national shipping, she has failed to bring together American plethora of wheat and European dearth of bread: she has as yet found no way of restoring the purchasing power of Europe to the end that multitudes of idle and disheartened men may be employed and millions of starving women and children may be fed.

As Christmas is celebrated across her prosperous continent may her statesmen remember that He once said: "Lend, hoping for nothing again and your reward shall be great." May the Christmas season "stab broad awake" this nation peopled by Europeans and their children, lest adopting a policy of national isolation she some day recall in bitter regret the condemnation of "Whoso liveth to himself."

THOSE nations in the Orient which have so recently entered into world relationships that they could not escape a share in the great war, have unhappily acquired a new consciousness of the part military preparedness may play in the attainment of national ambitions.

May China and Japan with their age-long admiration for sound ethics and their veneration for the teachings of the sage and of the saint profit by the advice given to one who drew his sword in quick defense against a military threat: "Put up thy sword into his place for all they that draw the sword shall perish by the sword."

May they realize that that nation is already perishing by the sword when military authority dominates civil life, when the talk of foreign interference is substituted for discussion of internal reforms, when the fear of warlike neighbors is deliberately utilized to postpone the day of disarmament.

In Africa, in India, in the Philippines, good men striving to establish accepted standards of government among alien populations are disconcerted and alarmed by a rising tide of self-determination, by an assertion of the popular will against their control. May these men, honestly convinced that the time has not yet come to renounce their stewardship, remember His severity towards the self-righteous, and at least on Christmas Day recall His solemn warning, "Take heed that ye despise not one of these little ones."

And may the millions "being prepared for citizenship" renew their resolution to continue the policies of a great teacher who more than any other living man is steadfastly committed to the typical Christian adventure as yet untried of "non-resistance." May at least one nation of oriental peoples actually fulfill that essential doctrine preached by Him who was born Christmas Day on eastern soil.

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The Oldest of Human Arts

Voluntary Giving as a Factor in Social Finance

By William J. Norton

Leonard P. Ayres of Cleveland, speaking the other day in New York, referred to giving as the oldest of human arts. As a Clevelander he speaks, of course, with authority. The Survey has borrowed his phrase as a title for this, the second in Mr. Norton's series of studies in social finance. Next month Mr. Norton will deal with the earnings of social agencies.

SOME towns are cross-grained, querulous, and always in a foment of discord. Others are unified in purpose and disciplined for civic action. There are cities that are calloused, hard, and niggardly; and there are cities that are open-handed in their sympathetic generosity. If you would try to understand social finance you must first try to understand cities. What you find in your city today is the point of departure for the financial program of your tomorrow.

Let us take several cities and illustrate the point by examining the sources of current income by means of which, a year or so ago, they financed their social work.

	Voluntary Gifts	%	Agency Earnings	%	Endowment Earnings	%	Tax Funds	%	Total
Boston	2,851,737	20	7,510,001	52	2,653,284	18	*1,481,352	10	14,496,374
Cleveland	3,884,100	36	4,982,322	46	659,769	6	*1,315,807	12	10,841,998
Cincinnati	2,221,000	33	2,858,000	42	262,000	4	*1,412,000	21	6,753,000
Detroit	2,344,221	18	5,535,267	42	260,877	2	*4,932,708	38	13,073,073
	11,301,058		20,885,590		3,835,930		9,141,867		45,164,445

* Only tax funds expended by the municipal corporations named included. Suburban corporations, counties and states are excluded. Correctional institutions, court social work, and social work of departments of education are excluded.

Each of these cities differs from the others in the emphasis placed upon the various departments of support. Boston has fat revenues from interest on endowments or accumulations from the past. At best it is a meagre income that represents the other cities in the same column. Cleveland and Cincinnati are notable for a generous outpouring of gifts from the present-day pocket book for current expenses; while the equivalent factor in their sister-cities is small. Detroit lays a comparatively heavy levy upon tax funds. All four cities depend upon self-support or collections for services rendered for the largest part of their budgets, although the relative percentages vary by ten points. None of these cities has a program of current expense financing which plays all four lines of support at once with a well rounded strength that suggests intelligent development. One may safely surmise that each city has sought support along the line which was relatively easy for it and left the others to chance.

Back of the figures for each of the cities is a story of personality; of the lives of men and of women; of leadership or the lack of leadership; a fascinating story of burning human interest, that culminates in true American fashion in a column of figures prefixed with a dollar sign.

Let us try to unravel the Cleveland and Cincinnati stories first because their happy ending is in the column of voluntary gifts. Superlatives are dangerous, but I am inclined to call Cleveland and Cincinnati, at the present time, the most generous cities in America. Their respective community funds produce in round numbers each year $4,250,000 and $1,800,000; staggering sums, when we realize that Cleveland is only sixth and Cincinnati fifteenth in population among American municipalities. In addition Cleveland citizens are giving something over five millions more for building funds this year, and Cincinnati citizens are planning extensive building fund campaigns for the year to come.

These two cities, then, epitomize for us at the moment voluntary gifts. They get gifts, get them regularly, big and little, and many of them. How do they do it? The obvious answer is the federation, or community fund. But that is not the true answer, or rather it is only a part and by no means the most important part of the true answer. I visited Cleveland while the community fund campaign was in progress to see if there was anything unusual about that campaign which set it apart. There wasn't. It differs from other campaigns only in mechanical details and in a certain knightly spirit. If it could have been transferred bodily to Detroit and put on in place of our campaign this fall, it would not have influenced our result very much either one way or the other.

The community funds are not the answer except in this: that they represent the flowering of old trees that have been carefully nurtured for many years for just such a flowering. The true answer is in the lives of citizens, in a tradition of generosity, established many years ago, carefully fostered, handed down through generations. There are families in both of these towns that cherish the ideal of generosity as they cherish the ideal of business success, the Mathers, the Wades, the Sherwins as well as others in Cleveland; the Gambles, the Tafts, the Emerys among others in Cincinnati. These generous families, dominant in business and society, have given parks, art treasures, educational funds as well as buildings and working funds for philanthropic agencies. From them has slowly spread a contagion of

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generosity. It is good form to be generous in those towns and to take a lively interest in human progress; it is not good form not to do so.

Again, the answer in both cities is that a group of business and professional men of the present generation have contributed and are contributing vigorous leadership. In Cleveland Martin Marks, the founder of the Federation, Frederick Goff, the founder of the Community Trust, both of whom have passed on; Samuel Mather and Charles E. Adams are representative of these men. In Cincinnati Frederick Geier, James Orr, and Charles Livingood. Each group is as compact a board of strategy, as powerful a unit of community leadership as any city has ever had.

There is still more in the answer. For thirty years capable social service executives have contributed guidance and intelligent planning to these cities, and their influence has been profound. Shurtleff, a big-souled, broad-minded secretary of the Cleveland Y. M. C. A. who has long since gone to his reward, Jackson of the Associated Charities, Bellamy of Hiram House, Cadwallader, the early headworker at Goodrich House and Havens of the Chamber of Commerce, have contributed mightily to the creation of an intelligent generosity in their city. Boris Bogen, for years the superintendent of the United Jewish Charities of Cincinnati, Helen Trounstine, whose brief but brilliant career left an ineradicable imprint; Edith Campbell of the Schmidlapp Fund; James O. White of the Union Bethel; and W. H. Parker have brought to Cincinnati similar talents and similar contributions. And we must not forget Tom Johnson and Newton Baker, who rescued the civic conscience of Cleveland, or that civic prophet of Cincinnati, Rev. Frank Nelson, the Episcopal pastor whose community-wide ministry was recognized by the saying of masses in the Roman Catholic churches when the whole city celebrated the completion of twenty-five years of his pastorate.

The Foundation of Giving

No city may expect to build the superstructure of great returns in voluntary gifts until the foundation is laid. Laying the foundation in these Ohio cities took many years. Only in the last six years has either come to the fore. Many other cities may match them and perhaps exceed them, if they will work hard and intelligently enough to build an equally good foundation. The lapse of time for others need not be as long as in Cleveland or Cincinnati, partly because we move faster now, and partly because they had to feel their way and stumble along while we have all gathered and sifted enough knowledge and experience by this time so that we may aim straight at the mark with reasonably well known processes. Neither need the foundation be built in exactly the same way; but it must be of the same four materials: tradition, virile leadership, intelligent planning and ideals. The chief reason why Detroit does not just yet raise as much money as Cleveland is that this foundation is still in the process of making.

The community which tries to raise large sums of money without such a foundation is simply breaking lances with destiny. And yet money is not raised on history alone. Tradition, leadership, intelligence and ideals, will function only indifferently without method. No doubt Boston has these four qualities. Yet Cleveland raises more money than Boston, and so does Cincinnati, on a per capita basis. These two cities center all money raising for philanthropic current expense in a unified annual campaign, where the most effective educational methods that are known can be brought to bear, where the largest effort can be applied under a unified command and concentrated intelligence with the greatest saving of strength, work and time. It is what we call the federation method brought for the moment to its highest state of productivity. It gets enormous sums of money from enormous numbers of givers.

Is There a Saturation Point?

One is amazed at the productivity of these two cities; and yet many people have noted that they are apparently stationary in production at the present time. Inquirers are wondering if there is a saturation point at which the giving of a federated city sooner or later arrives, and where it remains, making only such advances as are attributable to increased wealth and population.

I am inclined to believe that this level of stationary production (which, incidentally, has frequently been reached in non-federated as well as in federated cities) is not determined by a saturation point in the sense that the business world uses that phrase. It is not a point beyond which no further advance is to be expected in voluntary giving from constituencies of the same wealth and population. It is rather the point of diminishing returns for an existing method.

There is plenty of evidence to support this belief. The early Jewish federations, which set up the elements out of which the present elaborated federation method was evolved, experienced, for several years, a rapid advance in total contributions. Then a level of giving was reached and maintained generally for ten or fifteen years, until a new impetus advanced the level to higher reaches. Cities that are not federated have gone through the same experience, when, as sometimes happens, a group of new board members and new executives take hold of several agencies at about the same time. Their fresh enthusiasm sweeps the tide of giving upwards until it reaches a new level, which is sustained until their term of service lapses and an infusion of new energy, starting where they left off, pushes the level still higher.

A point of saturation in giving may exist, but it is safe to say that no city has yet attained it. There is, however, a very definite point of diminishing returns for any particular method coupled with unchanging personnel. This point is constantly being reached here and there, and temporary levels of giving are thus created. It is possible that these levels of giving cannot be avoided, and that production at any given moment cannot be raised above them. But the student of social finance need not admit this until the evidence is overwhelming, and at any rate he should not admit that their frequency and duration cannot be reduced by intelligent thinking.

The city of Grand Rapids illustrates the value of this skeptical attitude. For several years it had been confronted with what was virtually a static level of giving. It was raised by a very simple device. A new campaign chairman conceived the idea of writing a lengthy letter to all large givers who, he thought, were not giving enough, deliberately and pointedly asking for a specific larger sum from each. The first effect of the letter was a general laugh all over town. The ultimate effect was to produce—not what the letters asked for—but larger sums all around, and a handsome general increase from the city at large.

These levels of giving are the heart just now of the whole

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problem of the voluntary gift. They confront every town, every agency, every money-raising effort. The federation campaign needs to be re-examined from this point of view; if it is not planned with shifting and skilful strategy it may very readily prolong a level of giving.

Does the so-called immunity rule in federation practice need some carefully thought-out modifications in the interests of greater production? When the appeal for the Japanese earthquake sufferers came, Cleveland and Detroit followed divergent paths. Cleveland promptly appropriated $125,000 from its Community Fund and felt satisfaction in forwarding its check upon the same day the appeal was made. Detroit conducted a separate letter and newspaper appeal and within six days from the time the call was made forwarded $150,000. These different courses seemed to have very little effect on the respective community fund campaigns that followed. Detroit apparently raised no less money in its campaign, and Cleveland no more, because of the steps taken for Japanese relief. We know that a true emergency will practically finance itself if a quick and intelligent appeal is made. We also know that if the appeal is postponed till public interest wanes, as in the case of the Smyrna holocaust, it takes superhuman efforts to secure relief funds. A disaster appeal submerged in other appeals and postponed until it is convenient to make a united campaign, probably does not increase very much the sum total of giving. Is it not safe to say that the community appeal should be in the main for established enterprises, and that unusual and transitory appeals, in the interest of greater production, should be made separately?

It is a familiar fact that new enterprises can raise more money in places where levels of giving have been reached, if their direction and financing is undertaken by a completely new group of volunteers and executives. The rise of many movements in the past, notably the Boy Scouts, demonstrates this. The Young Men's Christian Association, which brought the Boy Scout movement to America, showed great financial wisdom when it cut that enterprise loose from itself. Must the federations relearn this lesson? Perhaps greater production will be secured if many new enterprises are required to start independently and to create their own clientele both of givers and of workers. When they finally merge into the united group they will bring an infusion of new blood which is almost always to be desired. And are there not a few very personal affairs which will get much more money if the individualized appeal rather than the mass compaign is used?

The Few Who Give Much

Giving after all is very largely an acquired habit. Even in cities where the habit of giving has been created in great numbers of people, a very small number give most of the money. One year ago in Cleveland for instance, 191,000 people gave altogether $4,250,000. Half of this money, or $2,141,630, came from 571 givers; and 74 per cent of the money, or $3,135,965, from 4,935 givers. I cite Cleveland because in spite of these figures she has both a larger number of so-called large gifts and a better general spread of giving than most cities. In trying to explain this condition, which is nation-wide, it is not enough to say that wealth, or incomes with large margins over and above the need for necessities and comforts, should give proportionately more than smaller incomes. It goes without saying that the rich should

Cleveland Community Fund

give all that they are giving now and probably more. Nevertheless, the lower planes of income are not yielding gifts in the same proportion to their possibilities as the higher planes.

When in our October campaigns I see many moderately well-off people repeat a pledge of twenty-five dollars year after year, and pay in full at once, I ask myself if these same people who seem to have easy cash would not cheerfully repeat the gift if they were properly approached later in the year. When I see a thousand factory pledges in a bunch, each amounting to a dollar in cash, I ask myself if another appeal six months later would not produce another dollar apiece from the same men. Such givers have not yet caught the fundamental conception of community giving—a careful budgeting for philanthropy of part of their incomes.

It is easy to set up a habit of giving in five hundred outstanding people, to maintain and expand it. All the methods that have ever been invented conspire to achieve this almost automatically. To set up the habit in ten thousand dimly prominent persons and two hundred thousand obscure ones is easy too. But to keep the habit from settling into a rut and to stretch it to higher and higher reaches in the masses is a new and a perplexing problem. The difficulty is probably paucity of methods and ideas. There must be a decided modification of educational and soliciting processes, tested by trial and error; no one has enough practical experience yet to state what the new processes should be. My own guess is that more and more specialized effort will be made to enlarge the giving habit in segregated groups where some natural cohesion makes it reasonably possible to study and master the special problem they present. The doctors are

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a convenient illustration. As a group they give very little. They have a complex, a beneficent complex, as to the amount of charitable work they do. Their training and professional experience make them individualists, and they are slow to accept any idea of organization. It is exceedingly hard for well solicitors to see them. There will have to be special educational campaigns designed to overcome these specific obstacles, and a method of solicitation that does succeed in getting healthy solicitors into their offices. What is generally true of the doctors is true of many other cohesive groups that can be studied and treated as the particular situation warrants. The educational program of social work is in for the most searching investigation and reconstruction. It is fundamental to the growth of giving.

In Cleveland Charles E. Adams has worked up a chart showing what he conceives to be the ideal production of voluntary gifts for current expenses in a community of a million inhabitants. Here it is:

100,000	givers	at	$ 5.00	each.....	$ 500,000.00
50,000	"	"	10.00	"	500,000.00
50,000	"	"	15.00	"	750,000.00
15,000	"	"	20.00	"	300,000.00
10,000	"	"	25,00	"	250,000.00
5,000	"	"	50.00	"	250,000.00
5,000	"	"	100.00	"	500,000.00
5,000	"	"	200.00	"	1,000,000.00
5,000	"	"	300.00	"	1,500,000.00
5,000	"	"	500.00	"	2,000,000.00
250,000					$8,050,000.00

Before we begin to criticise the small amounts assigned to the top layer of society, we need to complete Mr. Adams' picture by understanding that the present large givers are supposed to continue to give largely for buildings, parks, playgrounds, art treasures, (*Continued on page* 425)

By Grace of Senator Smoot

A GOOD sound common-sense idea has been kicking around Washington for six or seven years. Like many common-sense ideas it has had to run the gamut there of prejudice, faction, intrigue, individual crotchets, deadlock and compromise. It has emerged much the worse for wear, and is now embodied in the 1924 executive budget in a form which pleases nobody.

The idea of federal reclassification is a hard one to apply in detail, but a very simple one in essence. It has two interlocking parts: first, that Congress and the taxpayers whose money it spends should know just what service they get for the $750,000,000 paid out every year in salaries to civilian employes of the federal government; second, that those employes will give better service if they have equal pay for equal work, and equal opportunity for advancement, no matter where their jobs happen to be.

This is by no means the case now. A congressional joint commission a few years ago (and conditions in this respect are unchanged) reported that "the lack of a comprehensive and competent employment policy and of a central agency fully empowered to administer it" had produced "most glaring inequalities and incongruities in salary schedules, payroll titles and departmental organization, with much resultant injustice, dissatisfaction, inefficiency and waste." Employes whose duties accurately class them under the title "senior file and record clerk" have appeared in recent payrolls under 107 different designations, including "boss painter," "statistician" and "trouble chaser." Junior file clerks in different departments—all performing work of approximately equal difficulty and responsibility—are paid salaries ranging from less than $270 to more than $2,500.

Repeated efforts have been made to bring the civil service into an orderly scheme so that a given job would have the same name and range of salary all through the federal offices, with its duties and the qualifications it demanded accurately defined and recorded in clear and explicit terms. An unprejudiced observer would at once suppose that this was the business of the Federal Civil Service Commission, but as a matter of fact this reform has been a bitter battleground, with the United States Bureau of Efficiency disputing jurisdiction over every foot of progress.

There have thus been two hostile camps at work. The Civil Service Commission has had the aid and advice of such unofficial agencies as the Institute for Government Research and the Bureau of Public Personnel Administration, and in general the support of the Senate and House committees on civil service reform. It has drawn on expert service in attempting to work out a solution which would reflect the recognized technique of personnel administration.

The Bureau of Efficiency has been interested chiefly in "efficiency ratings" and salary schedules. It was set off from the Civil Service Commission in 1916 (by rider on an appropriation bill) at the request of its present director, Herbert D. Brown. It has since flourished under the aegis of Reed Smoot, senator from Utah. The alliance between Brown and Senator Smoot is one of those political partnerships which cannot be fully explained but must always be reckoned with; it is probably based on affinity of attitude and a pretty steady interchange of valuable services. How-

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ever that may be, the bureau has incurred the cordial enmity of federal employes, who dislike and distrust its methods and personnel. There are indications that Brown finds his closest friends among those in Congress and out who view all hired labor—from messengers to Ph.D. economists—with a trace of suspicion, and are quick to raise the cry of economy when it is proposed to pay college graduates of a year or two $155 a month when everyone knows they can be hired for $140. (That is precisely the difference between the salary asked by the Children's Bureau and the salary allocated for junior research assistants.)

The Bureau of Efficiency was first in the reclassification field with a mandate from Congress in 1917 to report on the need for such an undertaking. It failed to report in the specified time, and in 1919 a joint congressional commission was set up, under the chairmanship of Senator Jones of New Mexico, to study the whole problem. Experts —not including Mr. Brown—were retained and an admirable report, providing more than 1700 job classes, explicitly defined and named and well illustrated for the guidance of department heads, appeared in March 1920. This leviathan of nearly 900 pages, however, was too much for Congress, and its friends began to whittle it down bit by bit to get it through the door of the Capitol.

Meanwhile the Smoot-Brown faction was sharpening its knives. Smoot attacked the report in the Senate two months before it was finished, and Brown set about working up a substitute scheme. When a bill based on the joint commission's report was finally passed by the House and sent to the Senate, Smoot was able to delay action for months, though in the mean time his own bill, based on Brown's new salary schedule, was thrown out by both the House and Senate civil service committees. The session of 1922-23 wore on, and the reclassificationists faced the alternative of making terms with Smoot or losing their chance to get any law passed.

They compromised just before Congress adjourned in March, and the work of reclassification was given to a board of three members, representing the Civil Service Commission, the Bureau of the Budget, and the Bureau of Efficiency. A salary schedule was written into the bill, and the board was instructed to build up a complete classification schedule for employes in the District of Columbia which would fit into the framework thus established, to supervise the allocation of individual jobs to the schedule, and to have the resulting salary roll ready to be included in the general executive budget when Congress met last month. In doing so, it was to follow "as nearly as practicable" the Bureau of Efficiency classification which the House and Senate committees had once rejected. As to the employes outside the District of Columbia, the board was to study the situation and make a schedule which could be reported to Congress at any time during this session.

The policy of the board, with this compromise measure to guide it and two of its three members flatly opposed to each other, was necessarily determined by the representative of the Bureau of the Budget. At first General Lord's man attempted to straddle, voting with the Bureau of Efficiency in matters concerning the District of Columbia and with the Civil Service Commission as to the field service. An excellent tentative schedule had been prepared for the field service, indeed, when the Bureau of the Budget switched, reversed the board's action in regard to the field service, scrapped the tentative schedules, and threw the whole undertaking into the virtual control of the Bureau of Efficiency, leaving the commission in an impotent minority.

The board has made no attempt thus far to carry out its instructions to prepare a thorough-going classification of employes in the District of Columbia. It sent out questionnaires, collected information about employes' duties from administrative heads (giving the employe no chance to comment), and fitted the jobs into the salary schedule by a sort of rule of thumb method, making large use of the sketchy schedules of the Bureau of Efficiency. The allocations suggested by the departments were reviewed by small staff committees who had no classified definitions of record to guide them and of course had no means of comparing one department with another. The Children's Bureau allocations were inspected by an adding machine expert and a Department of Justice attorney, and as the board has kept secret its proceedings and minutes, there is no way of discovering what sort of final review—if any—the board itself gave them, or what considerations entered into its action. The board has taken the extraordinary position that it could assign jobs to a salary scale first and define and classify them afterwards—putting the cart before the horse in a fashion that seems to defy both logic and the law, and it is doubtful whether it can or will get the horse in front again.

The result, as was to be expected, is a muddled schedule which, so far as genuine progress toward civil service betterment goes, is a loss rather than a gain. Clerks doing identical work, according to the written report of their superiors and their own statement, appear in three different salary grades. Nurses are denied a professional status and in the District of Columbia rank as "sub-professionals." Out of 353 employes in the Library of Congress directly concerned with library service only 23 have been rated as professional: the chief librarians of the Department of Agriculture and the Department of Labor, each with a collection preeminent in this country, rank as "clerical, administrative and fiscal" employes. The director of the Children's Bureau and all her staff have the pay of employes in a minor agency (see The Survey, January 1, 1924, p. 352). More important than any individual absurdity is the fact that all along the line precise classified job definitions—essential to the integrity of civil service administration—are now lacking.

But so far as employes in the District of Columbia are concerned, the so-called classification has been written into the 1924 budget, and whatever corrections or modifications are made it will have to face the handicap of being ostensibly "tinkering with the budget." The Smoot-Brown group has thus won for itself a great strategic advantage.

Logic and the public interest alike seem to indicate that the control of classification and efficiency ratings should be in the hands of the Civil Service Commission which, though its progress is slow, is by way of becoming the federal government's employment clearing house. The work of the Bureau of Efficiency thus far—whether by accident or design—has been of the sort that spoilsmen welcome: loose schedules, ostensibly systematizing the civil service but actually leaving many a loophole for devious "interpretations." It has not won the the confidence of disinterested students of the federal government. And certainly good citizens will wish to join in eliminating Senator Smoot from his present position of dominating influence over the federal service. G. S.

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The Common Welfare

HOW far have we gone on the road to health? One leader answers that we have reached perhaps 5 per cent of the expectant mothers, a scant 50 per cent of the babies, perhaps one per cent of the children between two and five, most of the school children, and at a guess 5 per cent of the adults. Much of the enemy's country remains to be conquered, but the magnitude of that task shrinks when we consider some of the salients where victory already is within reach. There was once a time when a quarter of all new-born babies developed "sore eyes," ophthalmia neonatorum. Many of these babies were blinded for life. They formed a third of the whole burden of disability born by nurseries, schools and homes for the blind as well as by their own families. A few days ago the Chicago Board of Health reported that to the best of its knowledge not one of the 56,724 children born in that city in 1922 has lost his sight. Cleveland believes that it has no blind child of less than three years. Massachusetts has not recorded an instance of the infection for more than five years. Grand Rapids has had a clean slate for so long that there is no case of blindness among its school children. Within the lifetime of the pioneers such as Dr. F. Park Lewis and Louisa Lee Schuyler, who worked for the first legislation—the New York state law of 1890 which required notification of the condition—an unending campaign of education, lawmaking, and enforcement has demonstrated once more the truth of the credo that public health is purchasable—whenever we care enough to work to get it.

AS a sequel to the revelations of grave abuses in the licensing of physicians, Connecticut is still cleaning house with vigor. The licenses of more than a score of "M. D.'s" passed by the Eclectic Board have been revoked, and their photographs are to be mailed to every state in the Union to prevent their practicing elsewhere. The joint legislative committee on public health and safety will probably be called to account for a slush fund of $37,000 which is alleged by Governor Templeton to have oiled the passage of several bills favoring the irregular medical interests. More than two hundred suspicious death certificates have been culled from the state health records and are under investigation.

Missouri has already completed a survey of her medical schools, and will act promptly on the recommendation of its chief, Dr. F. C. Waite of Western Reserve University, that the charters be withdrawn from two institutions in Kansas City and one in St. Louis. A survey of the credentials of all persons claiming to treat disease is under way.

In New York investigation has been centered on bogus dentists, of whom, it is estimated, there are several hundred in New York City alone. At a conference called by Governor Smith to protect the people of the state from unqualified practitioners, Dr. Mathias Nicoll, Jr., the state commissioner of health, urged a revision of the state law. At present infringements of the medical practice act, which includes all persons who claim to diagnose and treat disease with or without the use of drugs, are prosecuted through the county medical societies, which collect evidence and present it to the county district attorney. Dr. Nicoll declared that the county societies are not equipped for this task and that an itinerant quack soon passes beyond county jurisdiction. He recommends therefore that the body charged with issuing the licenses (the Board of Regents of the University of the State of New York) be empowered to collect evidence through properly appointed inspectors, and to present it to the Attorney General for prosecution. He asks also that all physicians be required to register annually with the secretary of the State Board of Medical Examiners, and that this list of duly qualified practitioners be published annually so that officials throughout the state can have some means of checking immediately the complaints made to them.

PERSPECTIVE on immigration policy is changing. Oddly assorted groups have been contending since the war for two widely separated programs. Large employers of unskilled labor, with Judge Gary as a prominent spokesman, have naturally been eager to push open the doors so that a surplus of immigrants, bidding against each other and against their predecessors, might keep labor costs down. Beside them —so far as the broad question of policy is concerned—have stood the group of humanitarians who cling to the historic conception of America as a land of promise for the oppressed.

Two groups oppose them. Organized labor reckons up its gains from ten years experience with what is practically a closed labor market, and has little inclination to change a situation which may have been responsible in part for the abolition of the twelve-hour day in steel and which has certainly had a pronounced effect on wage-levels. The eugenists, with their none-too-convincing cult of Nordic superiority and their professed fear of racial contamination through too large an infusion of "Mediterranean" or "Levantine" blood, have played a part in justifying public dislike for the peoples of southeastern Europe which amounts to the effective rationalization of a very common prejudice.

Wherever one's personal sympathies may lie in this four-cornered tug-of-war, it is becoming increasingly clear that the restrictionists are for the time being top dog. The country as a whole approves their policy of sharply limiting the inflow of aliens. The question which will be fought out in Congress this winter and spring is no longer whether or not we shall have a quota law, but whether the application of

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the quota principle is to be altered either in the interest of "selection"—which is variously interpreted as adjusting immigration to known labor needs in this country, and as discriminating still further against newcomers from the zone that stretches from Italy to Armenia—or in the interest of a more humane handling of such immigrants as are permitted to seek entrance here.

THE national immigration conference called by the National Industrial Conference Board, which met last month in New York, demonstrated nothing quite so clearly as the lack of coherent thinking and definite facts on the part of presumably interested sections of the public. The agenda was excellent; four questions were propounded for discussion: Shall the per centum limit act be retained without change by extending the period of its operation beyond June 30, 1924; or shall it be amended in respect to its *administrative features?* Shall the per centum limit act be retained with amendment in respect to *percentage restrictions* features? Shall special legislation be enacted to secure better selection, distribution and assimilation of alien immigrants? Shall a competent commission with broad powers of investigation be appointed by the President under congressional resolution to inquire into the major factors in the immigration problem and report thereon?

The sub-topics offered under each of these questions ranged over a wide field of suggested legislation and study. But in the prepared addresses and discussion from the floor sentimentality, fearfulness, and isolated pockets of constructive thought took the place of definite trends of opinion which could be analyzed and intelligently considered. There was some attention to the new shibboleth of "selective immigration," but no very definite idea whether the basis for selection was "national destiny" or good business.

ONE voice, in the welter of indecisive talk about immigration, is heard with very general respect: that of W. W. Husband, commissioner-general. Since Senator Dillingham died last summer there is no one better informed than he. His experience goes back to 1903, when he became clerk of the Senate committee on immigration. The commissioner has bided his time before reaching conclusions as to the quota law. Now, in his report for the fiscal year ending in 1923, he is ready to say on the basis of two full years of experience in administering it that he doubts whether any more effective method for restricting immigration could be devised "that would cause less hardships to aliens or inconvenience to their friends in the United States."

This statement by no means indicates that Commissioner Husband is indifferent to the confusion which has raged at Ellis Island on the first day of each month since July. An essential part of the report is a recommendation that only 10 per cent of a yearly quota be admissible in a single month, instead of 20 per cent as at present, and a vigorous plea for the adoption of some plan which would make it possible to count noses abroad, before immigrants sail, rather than at our own ports. But a public that sees the immigration problem largely in terms of a somewhat distorted "close-up" of Ellis Island is in need of just such a nation-wide view as Mr. Husband presents. He points out that the total number of applicants rejected at all ports was 20,619—2.9 per cent of the total immigration for the year. At Ellis Island the percentage of rejection was only 1.1. The difficulties which occurred—and which need not be minimized even though they are seen in proportion—arose not so much from the law itself as from the physical equipment and psychological procedure at the various immigration stations, which subjected many more aliens than those ultimately rejected to unfortunate delay and unbearable living conditions.

COMMISSIONER HUSBAND states frankly that the quota law was expressly devised "to materially lessen the tide of immigration from the so-called new sources without unduly interfering with the normal movement of northwest European peoples into the United States." By analysing the pre-war (1913-14), post-war (1920-21) and current (1922-23) figures he demonstrates that the law is having just the effect desired by Congress on the stream of immigration as a whole.

The quota allotments admit a numerically larger group from the nations of northern and western Europe than from southern and eastern Europe, Asiatic Turkey and "other Asia." The allowance for the former is 197,555; 90 per cent of this quota was actually filled in 1923, as compared with 46.4 per cent in 1922. The allowance for the southern-eastern region is 159,646; practically the full quota was exhausted in both years. Whereas in 1913-14 the southern-eastern peoples formed 75.6 per cent of the year's total immigration, they amounted to only 31.1 per cent last year.

So far as this change is negative in character—the reduction in number of southern-eastern immigrants—there is no doubt but that the quota law is responsible for it. But can the commissioner's assumption that the law is to be credited with the actual increase of northern-eastern immigrants be accepted without question? Unemployment in England, dire want in Germany, depression in Scandinavia—were not such factors equally potent? What guarantee does the law offer that an alteration in these conditions will not once more cut down the proportion of "nordic" applicants for entry?

EMIGRATION from the United States, it appears, is also decreasing both numerically and in proportion to immigration. For the past 25 years it has been estimated that approximately a third of those who came left the country sooner or later. In the last fiscal year only 100 immigrants left for every 642 who came, a proportion which, according to the commissioner, "represents an unusual degree of stability and permanence compared to former years," to be attributed to "favorable employment conditions . . . un-

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certainty as to existing conditions in the homeland . . . fear that the operation of the quota law might make it difficult to return . . . and the greatly increased proportion of northwest Europeans, for such people have always become permanent settlers to a much greater extent." The reader's left eyebrow tends to rise at the last clause; certainly, if the report of the Canadian Department of Immigration and Colonization is to be trusted, those typical northwest Europeans who cross the border from Canada to this country are by no means permanent settlers. The acting minister in Canada believes that "not 10 per cent of those who have made entry into the United States intend to remain."

A corollary of the quota law has been a great increase in the smuggling and surreptitious entry of aliens, which is proving more and more difficult to control. Apparently the once lucrative practise of smuggling in Chinese on a "C. O. D." basis has given way to traffic in Europeans who pay spot cash. It is startling to read of "airplanes . . . used to convey inadmissible aliens from Mexico to points several hundred miles into the interior," or that

> Reliable information has been received to the effect that there is now in existence a far-reaching organization that takes the alien from his home in Europe, secures a passport for him (a fraudulent one, if necessary), purchases his steamship passage to Mexico, places him on the ship, arranges for his entry into Mexico at Vera Cruz or Tampico, conducts him north to the Rio Grande, and delivers him into the United States—all for a fixed price.

The futility of trying to enforce an immigration law over such unprotected borders as the thousands of miles of winding, twisting river fronts, densely covered with brush, between Mexico and the United States, with the limited force of inspectors who are now busy examining Mexicans at the regular immigration stations, furnishes a strong argument in favor of the commissioner's plea for an adequately paid and well-manned border police.

The report as a whole is reassuring evidence of commonsense administration in the face of a clumsy statute and congressional tampering. Its specific recommendations show official recognition of the need for humanitarian amendments to the present quota law. But they stress also the less popular side of the problem: the need of appropriations which would make it possible to do the whole job adequately. Many of the troublesome factors in the immigration muddle which have rightly aroused public protest would disappear if the present Congress should grant Commissioner Curran's request for $2,000,000 to remodel Ellis Island and Commissioner Husband's plea for the funds to maintain a larger and more carefully selected staff. These recommendations, no less than legislative changes, should have the hearty support of the public.

IT is still impossible to estimate the outlook for immigration legislation in a Congress which was slow in getting under way and is now preoccupied with the strong meat, politically speaking, of tax reduction and the bonus. The House restrictionists, led by Mr. Johnson, chairman of the committee on immigration, were early in the field with a bill differing little from the House bill which he offered last year. Rumor has it that the committee proposed to hold hearings on this bill during the Christmas holidays, rush through them, and wind the matter up, but that this haste—which could hardly be said to indicate an open-minded attitude—was checked by other members. The bill is too complicated and too generously loaded with precise details of administration to be summarized here. Its most interesting features are these: the quota is to be based on the census of 1890 instead of that of 1910 in order to increase the northern-western allotments and cut down those from the "new" sources; a more generous allowance is made for "non-quota" immigrants, including not only specified transient groups such as students (who must not, however, marry in this country lest they forfeit their right to be here) but also the immediate relatives of naturalized aliens already here; a third group, equal in size to the quota, is set up to allow unnaturalized aliens now in the United States to bring in their relatives; and quotas are to be counted abroad, through the issuance of immigration certificates, good for a specified term of months, by American consuls.

It is reasonably certain that the law which is finally passed will put an end to the odd by-products of the present quota system which the newspapers have been so vigorously exploiting. If a baby is considered as belonging to the country of its admissible parent, for instance, instead of being counted against the quota of the country where it happened to be born, one sensational type of case (which as a matter of fact has been of very infrequent occurrence) will be avoided. No doubt, also, some means will be found for spreading the admissions over a longer period of time, to avoid the first-of-the-month rush; and of counting quotas overseas as Commissioner Husband recommends, though whether this is to be a consular function or a matter of cooperation among the steamship companies is uncertain. Beyond this prophecy becomes hazardous. There is small disposition on the part of the Senate committee to accept the doctrinaire position of the House restrictionists. Perhaps the line of least resistance—the re-enactment of the present quota law with administrative modifications—will in the end determine the new legislation.

A GOOD many people are concerned that the unfortunate handling of the reclassification of federal employes (described on p. 377) shall not go unchallenged. The House of Representatives has adopted a resolution calling on the Personnel Classification Board for its minutes and papers. The Senate has directed its committee on expenditures in the executive departments, with that terse irony which occasionally creeps even into the Congressional Record,

> to inquire into the annual cost of the United States Bureau of Efficiency, the number of persons employed therein, the individuals responsible for their appointments and the value, if any, of the Bureau of Efficiency.

The American Statistical Association, the American Sociological Society, and the American Association for Labor Legislation have all passed resolutions looking toward a review of the classification of government employes in the fields of their respective interest. The National Civil Service Reform League has adopted a report vigorously condemning the procedure of the board and calling for the complete

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elimination of the Bureau of Efficiency from "any business connected with personnel administration in the federal service."

PERHAPS the lynching fever has passed its crisis. In the last decade lynchers have taken the lives of about 60 Americans each year. This number was a rather sharp reduction from the still darker records of twenty years ago, but it showed little tendency to go lower. Only once in the history of the records of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People had it fallen as low as 48. But in 1922, according to the compilation just made public by Tuskegee Institute, 28 persons met their death this way. Two of these were whites, 26 Negroes; of the latter two were women. Only succeeding years can show whether this reduction is mere chance, a temporary reform in the face of threatened legislation, or a new grip on that foundation of all government, law and order. While the killing of 28 persons by mob force is still an anomaly among the civilized nations of the world, the record gives a basis for hope, which is strengthened further by the very real and earnest work toward a better racial readjustment which has been apparent in the South. In addition to the actual lynchings, the Tuskegee compiler has noted 46 instances in which a lynching was prevented by the removal of the prisoner, the strengthening of the prison guard, or the use of armed forces; 40 of these victories were in southern states.

ARTHUR GLEASON was a poet, with a boy's spirit, with the flashes of insight, the errant fancy of the imaginative artist. This was inveterate in him. This was why in the midst of a formidable volume on the British commonwealth he would wedge in a parenthetical chapter—an intimate picture of a country vicarage perhaps—which would haunt you for pages thereafter, would be remembered long after his gathered facts had done their work. The interlude would have nothing to do with the subject in hand, other than the supreme relevancy that he was that kind of a man, and so had searched out the heart of the people he was interpreting; had known their secret places and understood the depths as well as the stirrings within them.

This also was perhaps why a year ago he turned from his constructive service in international relations and applied economics, from the machinery of parliaments and cities and coal fields and, in a little cottage at Mission Beach near San Diego, California, sought to recapture the halcyon days which the war had stripped him of. They were to be like the poppies and corn flowers that sprang up where the tanks had run their heavy course. His death on December 30 from meningitis, while on a journalistic mission to Washington, cut all this short. The poet in him was as surely a victim of the war as the maimed bodies he had carried back as a stretcher bearer from the first firing lines in Belgium. As early as September, 1914, he had gone out from England as an American volunteer with the Hector Munro Ambulance Unit. Mrs. Gleason was with him in that work; they spent a year at the front and were decorated for bravery and service. The story is told in Young Hilda at the Wars and in Golden Lads. He was the one American who was quoted by Lord Bryce in his report; he gave his authentic evidence; he lived under fire and later, on a trip home, was submarined; but these things became so much firm footing for an act of equal courage later in the war, when propaganda was at its height, and when he took his public stand against distortion and against atrocity-mongering and hate-breeding. For with his insight into human motives went that unflinching sincerity and honesty that made him one of the rare social interpreters of his time.

And the war which kept him in Europe for five years, which racked much that was deepest in him, afforded extraordinary play to these other gifts of his. He wrote three books which interpreted the common life of England in a period more epochal than any since the Napoleonic wars. In the first, Inside the British Isles, he revealed how a democratic people had girded themselves for conflict with a military autocracy. The shock of that conflict loosened forces long dormant within the British people; a new tide of democracy began to run through the old course-beds of liberty and self-government. In British Labor and the War, he revealed the British labor movement gathering the headway which has brought it within five short years to a formidable parliamentary party. He interpreted the two-edged foreign policy of British labor—resistance in the field coupled with the democratization of war aims—at a time when its leadership seemed the only hopeful force for democracy in Europe. After the close of the war he spent another year in England, 1919, interpreting for The Survey the elements at work in reconstruction, and thereafter appeared his third volume, What the Workers Want. He was the personal friend of Ramsey MacDonald, Robert Smillie, Clynes, Thomas, Henderson, Sidney Webb and others who have made up the spear-head of a movement as significant as the rise of the middle-classes to political power. With a labor government impending in England, Arthur Gleason's prophecies, disparaged at the time, have not a few of them come swiftly true. Meanwhile, in articles, in addresses, above all in his trilogy of books, he interpreted to his own countrymen this renascence of the mother country.

Returning to the United States, Mr. Gleason's chief work lay in the coal fields as a member of the staff of the Bureau of Industrial Research. He collaborated closely with John Brophy, president of District No. 2 of the United Mine Workers of America, in the preparation of the pamphlet, Compulsory Information in Coal, which set forth for the first time in a public way the possibilities of a national fact-finding agency; a project which was exemplified by the U. S. Coal Commission, and is today embodied in the administration's program before Congress. Mr. Brophy was chairman of the Nationalization Research Committee of the United Mine Workers of America and Mr. Gleason collaborated with him also in drafting How to Run Coal, which was the first attempt to bring the question of nationalization of mines down to earth or beneath it. The administrative proposals contained in this vigorous pamphlet are likely to be text for discussion for ten years to come.

His bulletin on Workers Education has been one of the most valuable documents in that rising movement; and the week of his death he was completing a series of articles on child labor for Hearst's International, which had all the fire and human warmth of his pre-war work for Collier's.

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COMMUNITIES

Twenty-One—and Half-Starved

THE preliminary report of the State Commission on Housing and Regional Planning presents figures which tend to confirm the worst forebodings of those who have been observing housing conditions in New York. It is based upon a comparison between a survey made in 1920 and the conditions found to be existing at the present time. Certain facts may be taken as demonstrated. People of moderate means, unable to pay rentals of seventy-five dollars a month or over, can find no apartments into which to move, however objectionable may be their present surroundings. Congestion has increased to a demoralizing degree. The new construction, which has seemed so voluminous, has not alleviated to a perceptible extent the severity of the pressure to which at least 75 per cent of New York tenants are subjected.

Under the circumstances a recommendation that the rent restriction laws be extended, and in some respects strengthened, seems inevitable. One aspect in the relation between landlord and tenant has changed for the worse in the last three years: landlords, in general, now refuse to make repairs. The Tenement House Department, which is supposed to enforce provisions of the law, is so poorly provided with the necessary funds by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment that there has been a steady retrogression in the condition of the houses, especially of the older buildings.

In the face of this discouraging situation, the Tenement House Department is celebrating the completion, on December 31, 1923, of twenty-one years of service. The creation in 1902 of a special department to have complete jurisdiction over tenement houses and multiple dwellings was a revolutionary step. No other city has even yet an independent department to exercise such functions; elsewhere health departments or building departments have bureaus dealing with tenement houses. Nowhere else, however, is the problem so gigantic. To take care of a million apartments in more than 105,000 buildings is too big a task to be made a side issue of any department's work.

The department came into existence in January, 1902, under Mayor Seth Low, as the result of action taken by the legislature of 1901, following an exhaustive analysis of tenement house conditions submitted by the Tenement House Commission, appointed at the instance of Governor Roosevelt. Robert W. de Forest, chairman of the Tenement House Commission, was appointed the first tenement house commissioner and Lawrence Veiller, to whose initiative the largest part of the project was due, was named deputy commissioner. The department therefore began its work under the most favorable auspices. The foundation then laid has affected its character and development down to the present. After the lapse of twenty-one years forty-five of the employes appointed in the first year are still in the department's service.

As soon as the department really began to function, it met hostility from many influential quarters. For several years, bills were introduced in the legislature to nullify the intent of the framers of the law. Injunction suits were brought to prevent the enforcement of the law on the ground that it was confiscatory. The leading case of this kind (Tenement House Department vs. Moeschen) was carried to the Supreme Court of the United States, which upheld the law and the action of the department.

In 1907 the department was successful in preventing the location of moving picture theatres in tenement houses. Attempts from time to time to diminish below the legal minimum the space allowance per occupant of rooms in altered tenement houses were successively defeated.

There have been few legislatures since 1901 in which one or more bills to amend the definition of a "tenement house" have not been introduced. The constant effort has been to take three-family houses away from the jurisdiction of the department. A fruitful source of attack has been the desire of owners of old private buildings to alter them into dwellings, for anywhere from three to twelve families each, without providing proper means of lighting and ventilating the rooms, and without fire protection appliances.

One serious threat to the efficiency of the department's control of new buildings arose in the Grimmer case. An owner who erected a building under plans filed in the Bureau of Buildings as an "apartment hotel" converted it by occupancy into a tenement house, in which a large majority of the tenants did their own cooking on the premises in their own apartments. After establishing the facts the department moved to vacate the building. The owner secured a temporary injunction. Every court in New York City refused to make the injunction permanent. Finally the case came before the Court of Appeals which in its wisdom decided, in spite of the language of the statute, that a building containing marble halls and elevators "with a separate kitchen and bath for each apartment" could not possibly be a tenement house. The effect of

Rollin Kirby in The New York World

THE LUCKY ONES

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this decision would have been very detrimental to the city, and disastrous to the department, had it been finally sustained. Fortunately the legislature was in session, and within two weeks it amended the definition of a tenement house, so that there could no longer be any doubt that it was intended to include all buildings, even of the marble hall type.

The Tenement House Department has had six commissioners during its existence, Robert W. de Forest, T. C. T. Crain, Edmond J. Butler, John J. Murphy, and Frank Mann. The force of employes has varied from a maximum of about 900 to its present minimum of 430; every one, except the members of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, concedes that it is quite impossible to enforce the law with so small a staff of employes. There is only one field inspector for every 1,000 tenement houses or every 10,000 apartments. Inspections can only be made of complaints received and even such complaints often have to wait for a considerable time for action. It is hardly too much to say that, in some respects, the conditions are nearly as bad as they were in 1902 and that an increase of 100 per cent in the operating force of the department would not do more than give the department a chance to put things back where they were ten years ago.

One aspect of the department's work the public can view with unqualified satisfaction—the regulation and control of the erection of new buildings. These structures in the main guarantee that the future will be free from the slums that our predecessors left us. While the lighting and ventilation of rooms on the lower floors of such buildings leave much to be desired, they are a great improvement on the types preceding them, and intelligent architects are generally planning buildings which leave larger courts and yards than the law requires. In one respect the buildings built under the tenement house law of 1901 have fully come up to expectation after twenty-one years of trial: while they have housed nearly two million persons not a single human life has been lost in any of them by conflagration of the building.

J. J. MURPHY

Settlement Brooms and Ballots

IN building social settlement programs, as in building club programs for men and women, there seems to have been a tendency to avoid politics and political issues, in the fear that by stepping on somebody's toes or taking a definite stand on political matters the settlement or club may offend some group and alienate some interests. I have believed for a long time that the settlements have not done enough active political work. We teach boys to play checkers and even chess, as well as baseball and football, and we put our emphasis on playing clean, but we have been afraid of politics and have never taught our boys to think clear and vote clean at the ballot box. We have taught our girls housekeeping, but have been afraid to teach them that the community is only the larger home of all of us and that they can do better sweeping with a vote than with many brooms.

Before I came to Northwestern University Settlement it was already well started on its political life. Raymond Robins as head resident had actively helped in the election to the City Council of two of the best men who had ever sat there—one a Democrat and one a Republican. They kept their seats for years and won enviable reputations throughout the city. Mr. Robins unhesitatingly went into the fight for higher license for saloons even though he knew the ward was a wet one. Neither he nor the settlement suffered from the position that he took.

I worked actively in the Progressive Campaign of 1912 and although many of our neighbors and friends were Republicans and Democrats we drew to the Progressive standard a good many of them—and no resentment from those who did not come. When women first had a vote in municipal affairs in Illinois, at the request of one of our own men's clubs in the settlement I ran for alderman. I did not go into the primary campaign but ran as an independent after the primary. For the first time in the history of this ward a candidate for alderman ran without the backing of a political machine or under the management of a ward boss. Instead I had a campaign committee of fifty men and women—Americans, Germans, Poles, Jews, and Italians. We carried on our campaign in homes and schoolhouses instead of the saloons, saloon halls, and dance halls. We served coffee and cakes or coffee and sandwiches instead of beer and cigars. We had neighborhood meetings in private homes in every precinct in the ward. We printed a platform dealing with issues affecting the lives of men and women and little children that were bound to come up in the City Hall during the term of the incoming alderman. We did not win. We knew we could not. But we polled 3,000 votes in a ward with only about 7,000 population. And we still realize the results of the educational campaign. Our successful opponent was a Pole (our ward is more than 50 per cent Polish), a sitting alderman, and a Catholic (the neighborhood is 90 per cent Catholic). He went around with our printed platform in his hands and item by item he would say, "The lady believes in so and so—so do I," and so he committed himself during the campaign to every plank of our platform. Before that he had been committed only to getting jobs for people, helping people to avoid paying licenses for news-stands or putting plumbing in their building and so on. We were able to hold him to many of his promises made because of our platform and he was a better alderman during the rest of his services.

Following that campaign, groups of women representing both factions of the Democratic Party and the Republican Party in the ward asked us to organize them. When I would say "I should be glad to do it, but you know I am not a Democrat," or "I shall be glad to do it, but you know I am a Progressive," they would always say something like this, "Yes, we know, but you know how to make motions and elect presidents" and they always had confidence that we would play fair with them. I also ran once for county commissioner on the Progressive ticket. (Our county commission has charge of all our county philanthropic institutions). I did not win in this fight either, but again I carried on an educational campaign telling the people of certain abuses in these institutions that we had known out of the experiences of our neighbors, and we turned the light on some political situations in connection with this county board service in a way which proved valuable.

For many years we have had the polling place in our settlement and at least one member of the staff has been a judge of election; sometimes we have had two representatives. During the Thompson administration the polling place was removed from the settlement and our staff members relieved of their responsibility because, as they frankly

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said, we knew too much about things and they couldn't put over what they wanted! With the return of the Democratic party to power last November, the polling place was moved back to the settlement and our representatives again appointed. We worked consistently against the Thompson administration in the city and Small administration in the state.

We have entered every campaign which had an issue of human interest, have stood for measures and men, even though we were the only people in the ward who did so; and, instead of our work suffering, we have always felt that this increased our acquaintance with the neighborhood and that the neighborhood respected our point of view even when it did not agree with us. I have worked actively in every presidential campaign for the last 16 years and in every local campaign, sometimes espousing Republican candidates and sometimes Progressive and sometimes Democratic. We have tried to interpret to our neighbors the dictionary definition of politics—the science of government—and it seems to us very logical and "settlemental" service.

HARRIET E. VITTUM

Treasure Unburied

A good friend to village libraries in Massachusetts is E. Kathleen Jones, general secretary of the division of public libraries in the state department of education. The Survey asked Miss Jones what little libraries in her state were best serving folks in small towns. One to which she referred is in the village of Westport Point, in the town of Westport which has a total population of some 3,000 souls. Miss Hall, the librarian there, has accordingly written this pleasant sketch of a library whose motto is "Get the books out."

CAPTAIN KIDD is said to have buried his treasure on Lenniken Island in the tidal river that accounts for the "point" in the name of Westport Point, a little old fishing village on the southern coast of Massachusetts. In Revolutionary days village guardsmen patrolled the sand-dunes lest a Britisher enter the harbor which was then well named "the devil's pocket hole." Whaling ships used to tie up at the point dock and the old storehouse still stands where the barrels of oil were put and where supplies for the ships were kept.

The Westport Point Memorial Library is housed in a picturesque village dwelling, used only for the library except for a few weeks in the summer. Across the street is the village school and no matter how stormy the day the children rush over for books on the days the library is open. A great number of the school children are brought in trucks to the school from outlying districts and in order to enable these children to use the library, it is open at least once a week during recess hours. The library is open all Saturday afternoon and is then a happy center for old and young.

This little library is run on unique lines; there are no rules, except the unwritten rule of courtesy and good behavior. There are no fines and no checking system of books. "Trust" is the motto of the library. We all trust each other and in consequence we all, old and young, New Englanders and foreigners and summer people too, respect the use of the books. Books are not stolen or lost or hurt. No restrictions are placed on the number of books a borrower can take: the books are of little value on the library shelves, and we want them to be in the homes. People come with bags, children come with carts, and one man comes in his wagon to take away books. The high school principal came to the library recently and took 25 books to be used in his school four miles away. Some of them, histories and biographies, he will keep all winter; others he will exchange in a few weeks. Fifty books at a time are taken to the home of the former librarian in the other end of the village and she loans them there. The children who come in the truck take home books for fathers and mothers, "love books" for big sister and "western stories" for big brother. Often to get books into homes where there are shut-ins or men who will not themselves come to the library I take a selected lot of books. Again I put a lot of books in the back of my carriage and let people select their own—any way in order to get the books out of the library! Often, I should almost say usually, the one who takes the book is not the one to return it, for books are passed from neighbor to neighbor. Lincoln's "Portugee" was gone for seven months before it came back to the library; it went up and down the village street and away into inner farms.

At least half of the children in our school are Portuguese and Poles, more Portuguese than Poles. These foreign children are among our best readers. The other day, as a small Portuguese girl picked out "The Story of a Grain of Dust," a fair-haired, blue-eyed Polish boy looked up and said, "Think how that will help you in your geography; I want it when you are done with it." A week after the older children had gone back to school two little Polish boys stayed over in the library to look at pictures. One saw a shelf of Portuguese books loaned by the state, "Why don't you send them back to Boston?" he asked, "You know we are all English." Quite true! The foreign parents cannot read their native languages and English is *the* tongue of the children. One Portuguese father began ten years ago to take A.B.C. books; now he likes Anna Katherine Green's detective stories. Of winter evenings he translates the stories into Portuguese for the benefit of his wife! The foreign children are especially fond of history and poetry. As one Portuguese girl expressed it when trying to tell why she liked Greek history and mythology, "It is the sound of the beautiful names."

We have books for all ages and for all tastes, down to scrap books for the youngsters who cannot yet read. The state has been very generous in its gifts of books: we have over 2,500 now, and it seems sometimes as if we could never have too many; for when sixty children rush over from school the books fly. We are laying special emphasis just now on getting together a really good collection of sea stories for this seaside village. We find great use too for old magazines; of course we delight in "new" ones but we never scorn old ones and these are the ones usually donated to the library. After the magazines have been loaned around, I give them to the children. The Portuguese love to have those with colored illustrations for they can cut them out and decorate the bare walls of their homes.

Discipline is an unknown term with us. Of course, once in a while we have little storms but they quickly pass by. Last year two state reform boys, placed out in a nearby farm, attended the school and raised havoc with the other children. One bothered us in the library also until a fine Portuguese boy, "the peace maker" as he is known in his home and at school, came over to the library every time it was open on school days and kept order. Gilbert himself is not a reader

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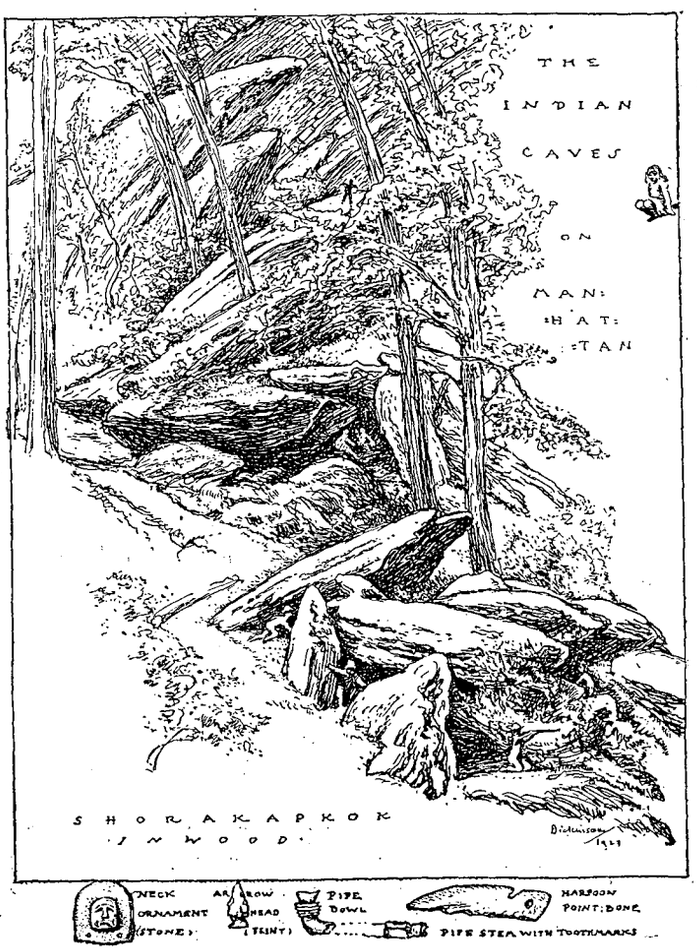
but he was loyal enough to the library to volunteer help in time of need. The state boys have gone, and this year, as Gilbert himself told me would be the case, there is no trouble.

I fancy the old saying, "success brings success," is as true in little libraries as anywhere else. This library just carries itself along now. Of course, the older people are loyal to it and as each generation of school children comes along, whether New Englanders or Portuguese or Polish, they instinctively seem to catch the spirit of the library.

KATHERINE STANLEY HALL

Manhattan Outdoors

SOME slightly cynical observer of human vagaries remarked that the reason for the early decline of the bicycle as a fad lay in the fact that it was an incorrigibly democratic machine: you simply could not contrive to have a much more expensive and luxurious one than your neighbor; what was the use of having one at all? The oncoming automobile shone by contrast; even in the days when the two-cylinder Ford was of surpassing comfort as compared with its one-cylinder rivals it was possible to pick and choose and dazzle your neighbor. But there may have been other reasons for the decline of cycling and the rise—not only of motoring, but of pure hiking—which lay rather in the kind of enjoyment to be extracted from these three kinds of distractions. The bicycle at best was a compromise between walking and riding; one was by no means free from effort, yet he did not fully achieve that communion with nature which we like to think of as our reason for faring outdoors.



As between four wheels and your own feet, the alternative is clean-cut. You can be idle and comfortable, or you can press wood-moss and sense the leisurely mystery of the curving trail.

So it is not strange that the years of the most elaborate development of the motor car have also been the years in which walking as a sport, as an exercise, and as an organized social adventure, has been capturing more and more attention even in the walled cities where it takes determination and patience to escape from steel and brownstone. It has come now to a pass where the outdoor clubs in New York alone are measured by the score, where mountaineers on both American seacoasts have their traditional rites and expeditions, where a New England Trail Conference enlists the attention of legislators and state officials, where an Appalachian Trail rivalling in length and surpassing in scenic appeal the much-advertised motor trails can be seriously proposed.

Sketches by Robert L. Dickinson from the New York Walk Book

The cult of the footpath has even begun to have its own considerable body of literature—not merely the hip-pocket anthologies of campers' verse and fireside stories, not merely the paper-covered and dearly treasured handbooks of favorite bits of walking country, not merely the beautiful, though rapidly aging, maps of the Geological Survey. The American Geographical Society has burst its self-imposed bonds of scholarly reserve and is engaged full-tilt in a publishing program devoted solely to those who study geography by the heel-and-toe method. From the first pamphlet in this Outing Series, Dr. Dickinson's little brochure on the Palisades Interstate Park, The Survey published two or three sketches almost a year ago (February 15, 1923, p. 643). The second, the New York Walk Book*, is now in circulation. A Washington walk-book is to appear later in the year. Already other cities to the west are clamoring for Dr. Dickinson's aid in similar projects.

This walk book of New York is a guidebook of a new species. It begins with the easy routes along the sidewalks of New York that would repay the walker either with historic interest or present-day cultural values. But it soon swings into the open, and devotes most of its 200-odd pages to a pretty thorough combing of the good walking country east, north, west and even south of the city which is within reach of a day's expedition or a bit more. There is a nice blend of essential information and *obiter dicta*. The directions even in the criss-cross trails of the Interstate Park are specific so that they can be followed without relying too much on

* NEW YORK WALK BOOK, by Raymond H. Torrey, Frank Place, Jr., and Robert L. Dickinson. 217 pp. American Geographical Society. New York. Pocket edition, price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey. Special limited edition with additional material, price $4.00 postpaid of The Survey.

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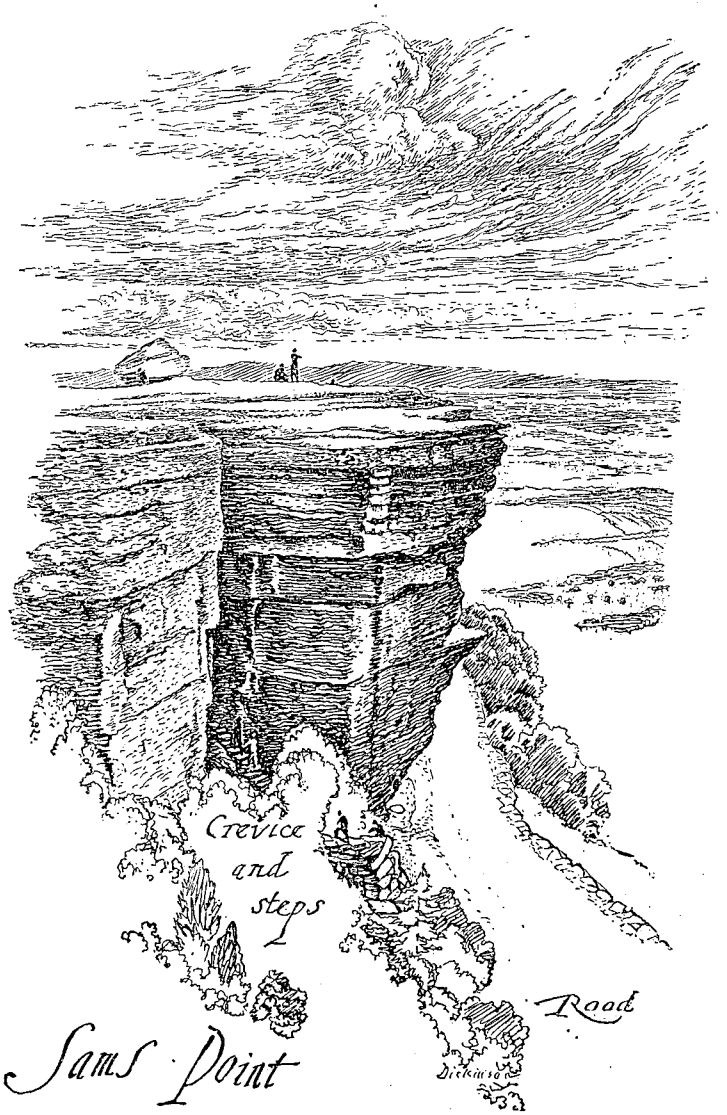
trail-sense; the sectional maps, with simplified contours and an excellent system of showing all sorts of pertinent detail, not forgetting potable springs, are convenient in size and more useful even than the Geological Survey quadrangles; the data as to rail and water communications is adequate; and with all this the delicacy and sympathetic quality of Dr. Dickinson's sketches and the unobtrusive recording of history and legend mellows the whole book into something much more readable and delightful than an ordinary guide.

Of the three authors, each has made a distinctive contribution to the outdoor movement. Dr. Dickinson's alluring drawings are familiar. Raymond H. Torrey, as editor of the Long Brown Path section of the New York Evening Post, has done much to overcome metropolitan inertia and lead New Yorkers outdoors. Frank Place, Jr., has organized walking clubs multitudinously.



Their joint product should convince any decently-shod New Yorker, transient or otherwise, that leisure time in and about the metropolis need not be spent on Broadway. When there are stretches on Manhattan Island itself as wild as those which are suggested on the opposite page, to say nothing of the virgin woodland within easy reach of a day's expedition into Palisades Interstate Park, it is common sense and good social work to advertise them.

Not every town will be able to make its own walk-book with such a refinement of detail as this; but to record in attractive form the neighborhood opportunities for hiking is a task worth doing anywhere. Here's a job for scouts and Rotarians to tackle together. G. S.

THOUGHTFUL travelers coming home from China bring a grave warning to complacent occidentals. The industrial revolution is making such headway in a country with untold labor resources that the trade of the world may presently be shaken by its effects. It behooves the rest of the world to take every opportunity to learn just what is happening there—and why. One such opportunity has fortunately presented itself within the past few weeks. "China and the Chinese" is the double theme of an exhibition just staged by the Museum and Library of Newark, N. J., with a fortunate accent on "the Chinese." The exhibition, like various others planned by the museum's brilliant director, John Cotton Dana, is timed to meet one of the most significant awakenings of the public mind in this country due to the Great War—a friendly and robust curiosity about those 400,000,000 other human beings across the Pacific who constitute one-quarter of our race. It gives glimpses of the customs and daily life of the Chinese, their arts great and lesser, their wonderful craftsmanship, their religious and ethical ideas and observances, education old and new, and their effort to evolve a New China out of the arts and philosophy of the East and the science and invention of the West. And nowhere, by juxtaposition of objects, by label or by picture, is there the slightest intimation of that "How queer!" "How mysterious!" attitude which, more than anything else, has isolated us from these sister peoples. Perhaps the keynote of the exhibition has been struck in the big culture chart which hangs in the library's well, which by graphic line shows how Egypt, Persia, Greece, Rome and other Western nations rose and fell while China's history runs on through the centuries unbroken. Why? The exhibition aims to provide more than the school child with answers on that provocative question. The exhibition has been collected from innumerable sources and organized into a whole by Theodora Rhoades, the assistant in charge. Twenty-one other libraries and museums have asked for the smaller traveling exhibits which are to go out from Newark when the present exhibition is over there. It is to be hoped they can carry with them a picture of Chinese social custom, thought and culture strong enough to make its own lasting impression.

THE OFFICE CONFERENCE of Philadelphia welfare agencies has rounded out its first year. Office problems are of no small importance not only to the large departmentalized agency but to smaller ones as well, and Philadelphians decided in January 1923 that it would be a useful undertaking to try and remove rust from working tools and keep their edges sharp. A group of office and administrative executives began lunching together in alternate weeks to discuss such subjects as Looking Out for Office Personnel, Finding the Best Procedure for Accounting, Filing Methods, Surroundings and Tools. Twelve agencies, on an average, have been represented at each luncheon.

IS THERE any short cut out of the Washington alleys? Congress has been acting since 1914 on the supposition that to rid the city of the undesirable alley houses in which 10,000 people are still living it was necessary simply to pass a law providing that they should be emptied on such and such a date. Twice Congress has itself been persuaded of the immediate impossibility of turning people out of houses when there was nowhere else for them to go: twice the date for eviction has been postponed. Finally there was to be no more temporizing; the date was

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fixed for June 1, 1923. Whereupon owners of alley property secured an injunction against the enforcement of the law—an injunction based upon a fearful and wonderful interpretation, but one which provided a way out of an impossible situation. So only a handful of people were actually turned out. Most of the alley houses now have access at least to outside water and sewage connections. The moral hazards of these devious, irregular pockets, which cannot be observed from the main streets and are patrolled only with difficulty and danger, remain unchecked. In summer, by an odd paradox, the alleys are so choked with sun that the unbearable heat drives the tenants indoors with closed shutters, so that rickets, the disease of darkness and malnutrition, frequently maims the children.

WHILE THE SUPPLY of high-rent apartments in Washington is beginning to exceed the demand, so that rents at those levels are wavering, there is as yet little building of low-cost homes such as a government clerk can afford to buy or rent, and none at all in the cheapest grade of houses on the main streets, to which the alley-dwellers would have to go if they were evicted. So the lower-rent groups are held fast in the accommodations they now occupy, and are indeed hard pressed to hold their own in the face of rent increases. Some houses or unheated apartments of four or five rooms and bath, on the main streets, which could be had for $16 a month in the summer of 1914, now bring $50 to $60, and even at such prices a long line of applicants would quickly form outside the door of a house suddenly vacated. Alley houses rent for from $8 to $15. Until the saturation of the market at the upper price levels brings rents down, restores stability to real estate values and thus eases the cost of money, there is small propect of attracting capital to building operations which would benefit the low-income groups. Until such building operations begin there seems to be not much hope for the alley-dwellers. The Washington housing problem in general is now being studied by a sub-committee of the Committee on the Federal City sponsored by the American Civic Association.

ONE BY ONE social agencies begin to discover that the printed page or written letter is by no means the only way of reaching the contributor's eye, enlisting his sympathetic understanding, and getting his support. The Survey recently noted the "speechless" annual dinner of the Associated Charities of El Paso (July 15, 1923, p. 463). Now comes from Amos W. Butler an account of the "Revue" presented by the Social Welfare Bureau of Richmond, Indiana, before no less than 800 citizens from a total population of under 30,000. Episodes which had actually taken place in the bureau's work were strung together into a performance called A Typical Hour in the Office of the Social Service Bureau, the characters being tactfully introduced under such names as Mrs. Beg-it, John Tee-bee, Arnold Tenantfarmer, Mrs. Philip Contributor, and so on, in the best style of John Bunyan. Staff workers and students from Earlham College formed the cast of 27 characters, and a surprising variety of "cases" walked the boards. S. Ethel Clark, the secretary of the bureau, was the playwright and producer. The performance brought down the house. What other small cities have been equally successful in making social work real to a sizeable group of every-day citizens?

THE METEORIC RISE of the Protestant or city-wide federation of social agencies has somewhat obscured for the time being the slow and steady growth of the Jewish federations. While this form of cooperative financial organization has its origin in the larger cities, the first being Boston in 1895, it has spread to many smaller ones—to Hot Springs, Ark., for example, with a total Jewish population of only a few hundred. Trenton, after months of preparation, has now launched the fifty-fifth Jewish federation in the country. It includes ten agencies, and will not only conduct a joint campaign for their benefit, but will investigate and certify appeals for money from organizations outside Trenton. Maurice Bisgyer, who directs the Jewish Center, will be its executive.

IN a series of articles in the New York Times, Charles Downing Lay voices some decidedly unorthodox views on the planning of large cities. Among other things, he defends the present street plan of New York as ideally practical and economical. He says: "One wonders sometimes if the secret of our great growth is not partly in the plan which is so perfectly adapted to congestion. . . . It is the fact of dividing the costs of streets, with all their service of sewer, water, gas, electricity and unequalled perfection of transit, among so many people, that makes the big city possible, so that congestion is responsible for all our convenience. . . . Congestion in our multiple dwellings is often spoken of as a terrible blot on civilization. But is it? Are not our new tenements warm, light, airy? It is doubtful, I think, if people have ever in the history of western civilization been so well housed and so free from the accidents and inclemencies of weather, so little of their time occupied in mere conflict with the elements to keep body and soul together."

ONE FORM of leisure time employment for which at the present time there is not nearly enough pressure of public opinion in the United States is gardening. It is reported that in France 160,000 gardens, specially set aside for industrial workers, are now cultivated. This is an increase of 72,000 over the number in cultivation in 1919, when the eight-hour day came into general application. In some part this result has been achieved by the propaganda of such organizations as the Cottage and Small Holdings League, in some part by the fact that practically all cottages in the reconstructed and new towns of the devastated area are provided with gardens or with garden lots not too far from the homes. In this movement the Association of Mine Owners has taken a leading part. It not only provides land but carries on an educational campaign; individual companies often distribute seeds and manure free of cost or promote gardening competitions.

THE PIECEMEAL PROGRESS of New York toward genuine collaboration between its social agencies continues. This year for the first time Manhattan and Bronx made use of a Christmas Clearing Bureau, fostered by Better Times and organized under the administration of the city Department of Public Welfare. Approximately 9,000 names of proposed Christmas dinner beneficiaries were filed by 70 agencies. Among them 1,033 duplications—nearly 12 per cent—were discovered, the most notable group being families who were listed both by the Salvation Army and the Volunteers of America. Mr. Hearst's New York American did not cooperate. Brooklyn has had a clearing house for three seasons; this year's clearings amounted to 3,227 families, among whom 245 duplications were found. Some agencies did not succeed in making full use of the clearing house this year; more complete cooperation may be expected in 1924.

AMERICANIZATION IN PHILADELPHIA is the title of a lavishly printed booklet issued by the Americanization Committee of the Chamber of Commerce. While much of its oddly assorted contents is quite conventional in character and gives evidence of the a priori thinking which is so common in approaching this problem, there are encouraging signs too of a realistic attitude. A fair and sympathetic position is taken toward the foreign-language press. Not only the naturalization laws and laws relating to the display of the flag, but also the laws regarding tenancy, housing standards, and the employment of women in industry are digested for the information of Americanization workers. Detailed statistics of illiteracy by wards and nationalities are quoted. An effort is made to show some of the contributions of the foreign-born to American culture.

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HEALTH

Health Plus

ARE you living sixty seconds a minute, sixty minutes an hour, and twenty-four hours a day? When you see a hill do you want to climb it? Or a horse, to ride it? Or a lake, to swim in it? (With due reservations, of course, as to the quality of horse and lake.) Are all your cylinders working all the time? Are you getting your mileage before you tire?

Such are the saucy challenges to "positive health" that assault one through newspapers, in speeches, even by radio. It no longer is noble to be "just crawling about"; in fact, modernly speaking, it is much more noble to give up indulgence in the pity of one's neighbors and take to bed until one is again a fit member of society. Sneezing determinedly over one's desk is not a virtue but a plain crime against the community.

It is not quite clear where all this enthusiasm for red-blooded health came from. Certainly one source is to be found in the propaganda to prevent disease, which has put increasing emphasis on the need of building health to resist infection, and decreasing emphasis upon the diabolic nature of the infection itself. Athletics in the colleges have made vigor a social desideratum. School children absorb health in their reading and drawing lessons, and learn the why along with the mid-morning milk lunch. Probably the war gave the movement its definitive push, in a rather backhanded manner, by showing what a pitiful percentage of the male youth of the country could measure up to a reasonable standard of fitness. This revelation had a special value for those who followed it far enough to see the results after these same flat-footed, underweight, crooked-backed, anemic young men had had some months of insistent physical training.

What the War Department learned of the physical conditions and needs of the men led it to take thought of the other half of the population. It entrusted to the Bureau of Social Education of the National Board of the Young Women's Christian Association a health program which first was concerned chiefly with spreading information on the venereal diseases, but which was extended rapidly to form an all-round campaign on health for women. This campaign met with an impressive response from club women and medical women. After the war, in 1919, an international conference of medical women was held in New York, to talk over the lessons in health which the war had taught or indicated, bringing together women doctors from Europe, Great Britain, Japan, China, South America, and the United States. The final three days of this conference were spent in evolving a plan whereby a baker's dozen of the largest women's organizations of this country could cooperate to form a consolidated working program to emphasize positive health among the women of this country.

Thus was evolved the Women's Foundation for Health —not an independent organization, but a kind of clearing house to work out health programs for its member groups, to fit them together so that they may be as effective as possible, to find out and to tell them the most modern ideas and ideals of health. The foundation aims to be self-supporting through royalties which it obtains from shoes, made by independent manufacturers according to its lasts and of materials and under conditions which it can endorse with its seal of approval. Its aim is "Health Plus."

To attain this aim the foundation set itself two objectives and worked out a program which would lead to them. It wished on the one hand "to establish the conviction that health is generally attainable through individual effort and

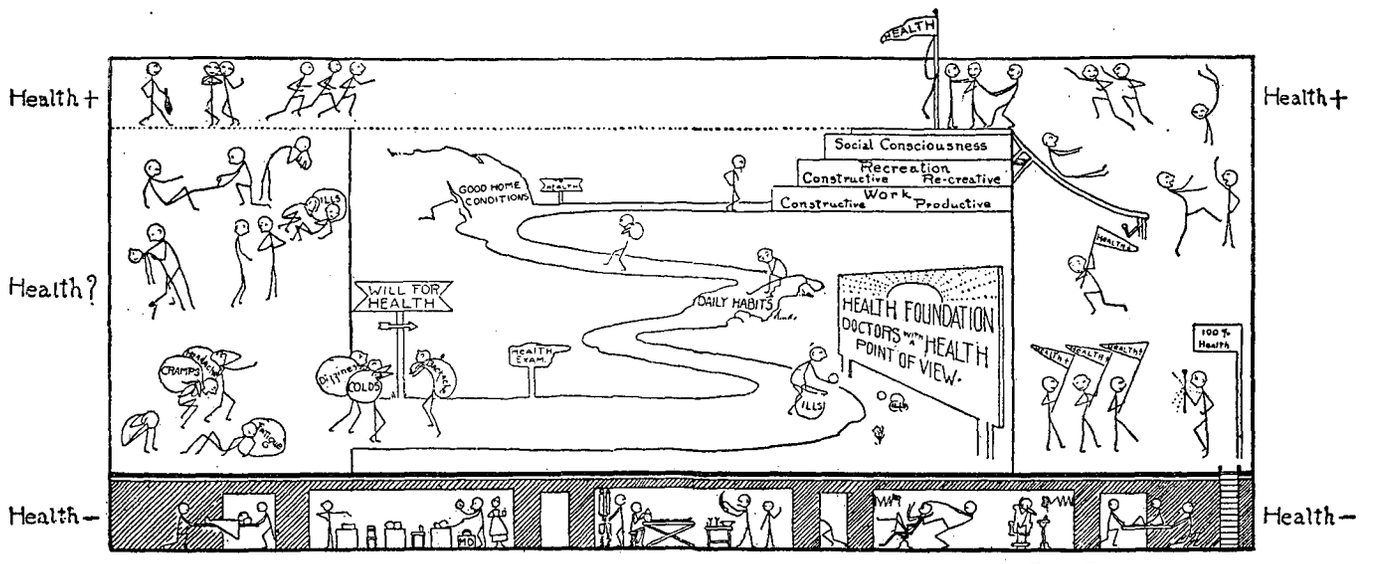

PLATE II

In a poster the Women's Foundation for Health depicts the pilgrims' progress from an inferno of actual sickness, up through a purgatory of questionable health, to the Elysian fields of health plus

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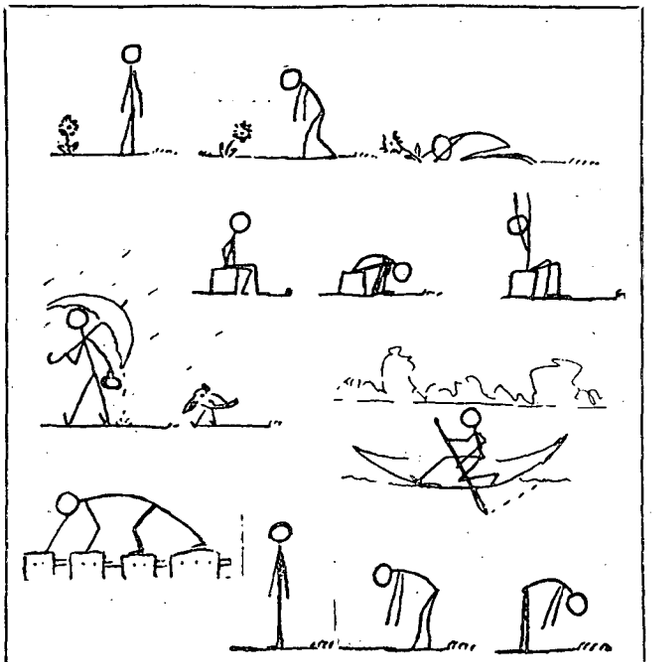
responsibility"; on the other, "to establish the conviction that mental health is as procurable as physical health." Its program, endorsed by the American Medical Association, reads:

For realization of Objective I

1. Promotion of the positive viewpoint toward health education and the individual's assumption of her own responsibility.
2. Effort to secure, generally, health examinations:
   a. First, for inventory of individual needs and advice concerning daily health habits, exercise, and recreation to meet those needs.
   b. Later, at periodic intervals, for checking improvement and further advice for development.
3. Promotion of education in the health values of food.
4. Dissemination of adequate knowledge of the heritage of life.
5. Effort to secure proportionate emphasis on the adaptation of recreation to the individual needs.
6. Campaigns of
   a. Better air—better health
   b. Better food—better health
   c. Better teeth—better health
   d. Correct posture—better health
   e. Better feet—better health
      1. Good shoes—better feet, better health
      2. Straight foot walking—better feet, better health
   f. Etc., etc.

For realization of Objective II:

1. Effort to secure on the part of the individual correct mental habits.
2. Effort to secure realization of the necessity of adjustment of work, living conditions, and recreation to the individual's physical and mental capacity.



More or less poetical names and persuasive sketches are attached to exercises for all sorts and conditions of people. Beginning at the top and travelling downward and left to right we have Drooping Daisy, and a yearning one called severely Touching Floor, both relaxing exercises. The rainy weather scene is an exercise for short Achilles tendons; next is paddling a canoe, good for thin people with indigestion. The Cat Walk is good for anybody—while Waving Willows, another relaxing exercise, is the last word in languor

The girl who has gone to college usually gets a certain education in the value of health and how to attain it, with athletics as a positive goal to lead her on. Her less fortunate neighbors in business or industry are likely to think of it chiefly in negative terms—of the money they lose if they are sick enough to be off the job. The same economic motive holds in the case of older women in the professions or in industry. They have to keep well if they are to work. Changing their attitude from this negative basis, which defines health as being well enough to go to work, to a positive one is part of the foundation's job. Its hardest and most important task, however, is to reach women in their homes, who have no such immediate financial setback if they are ill or "below par," and who too often follow an unselfish but shortsighted policy of having the whole family put to rights before they tackle their own problems of health, upon which so much of the integrity of the home depends.

Reaching these women is the first problem. Their clubs offer one promising approach. The foundation has prepared club programs and illustrated lectures which have carried the message to thousands. It is stated in more detail in a series of pamphlets, written by authorities in each field and sponsored by the American Medical Association and the Bureau of Social Education of the Young Women's Christian Association, which tell the story of the health examination, of nutrition, mental health, the heritage of life and recreation. Blank forms have been prepared for health examinations to be administered by one's own physician. The health examination is not merely a physical examination, for it takes account of habits as well as physique, of mind as well as body, with a view to a complete inventory to set one on the road to fulfilling all one's potentialities.

The campaign has met with enthusiastic appreciation. Women are anxious to know more of it. Two articles on the foundation in women's magazines brought two thousand enquiries mailed in cities from New York to California. The cornerstone of the foundation program, the health examination, has become an accepted part of medical and lay programs for improving the country's human assets. Twenty years of organized education for individual initiative have shown that the spectre of tuberculosis is conquerable; what twenty years of similar effort—aimed not merely at avoiding disease, but at winning health—might do for the women of this country the foundation is trying to demonstrate. To this end it seeks to enlist, woman by woman and home by home, that individual interest and effort which alone can produce decisive results. M. R.

Got a Cold?

AMONG the smallest but not the least of the offenders in the realm of health is the germ or family of germs responsible for the common cold, which are so infinitesimal that they can pass through an earthenware filter and elude search through the most powerful microscopes. But, though they have not been seen, they can pass from person to person, inflicting the distressing symptoms which are responsible for so much indisposition during the winter months. In a recent paper before the American Public Health Association Dr. Peter Olitsky and Dr. J. E. McCartney told of four years of laboratory experiments at the Rockefeller Institute on which these conclusions are based. Animals proved unsuitable for the study, and various persons volunteered their services as subjects. Their studies indicated that the causative agent of epidemic influenza was wholly distinct from that of the common cold.

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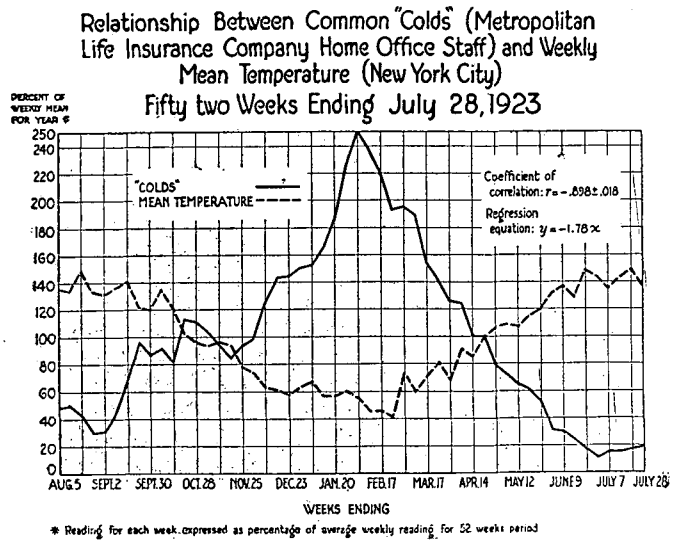
From the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company comes a chapter of epidemiological experience. In its home offices in New York, colds (coryza, acute bronchitis, and tracheitis) were responsible for the loss of 6,233 working days, in the 52 weeks ending with July 28, 1923. This averaged almost a day's disability from these causes for each of the 6,700 clerical employes on the payroll, or 2.2 days disability per cold. There is a distinct curve when colds become more or less frequent. Its first peak comes with the cool weather of late summer or early fall; its second and higher peak with the lowest temperatures of the winter in January and February. It has been suggested that this may indicate two types of infections, and the question is raised whether or not the severe pneumonias of mid-winter are founded on the head colds of cool or cold weather. A sudden change in the weather had a decided bearing on the general question of colds. In this group of 6,700 persons, a drop of 10 degrees in the mean temperature meant the reporting of 18 new colds. The physicians of the company point out that there are apparently two main lines of study: one of the influence of weather, which can be managed to some extent by proper attention to clothing and to the ventilation and heating of homes, work-places and vehicles of transportation. The second—the possible relation between the minor infections of the fall and the later and more severe forms—should be studied further with a view to prevention.

An extensive study of respiratory diseases has just been undertaken by the United States Public Health Service, which points out the tremendous total economic loss of these apparently minor illnesses, as well as the more serious ailments to which they sometimes lead (sinus infections, diseases of the middle ear which may lead to deafness, mastoid disease, occasionally meningitis, and at times the lighting up of latent tuberculosis). Comparatively little is known of the causes, means of distribution, and epidemiology of colds and influenza, which do not appear in the ordinary morbidity



From the Statistical Bulletin of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company

reports. Consequently the Public Health Service determined to get data from as wide a geographical area as possible, and obtained the active cooperation of college students at Harvard University, in Boston; Johns Hopkins Medical School, Baltimore; Georgetown and Howard Universities, Washington; Tulane University, New Orleans; Ohio State University, Columbus; the University of Chicago, and the University of California, at Berkeley. The students are submitting preliminary data as to whether or not they suffered from influenza in the 1918 epidemic; whether they are subject to chronic nose or throat trouble; the kind of underwear worn; the ventilation of sleeping quarters, etc. Following the preliminary data there will be semi-monthly reports as to their "respiratory experiences"—whether or not they have suffered in the preceding two weeks from colds, bronchitis, tonsillitis or influenza. The studies probably will be continued for several years.

Salvaged Hearts

IF there are 10,000 children in the schools of a city, among them are about seventy who must reckon with heart disease of one sort or another. In older people the rate is higher. Heart disease competes with tuberculosis and pneumonia for first place in the causes of death. Of the 5,000,000 men examined for the draft armies, 200,000 were rejected because of their defective hearts. But, though heart disease often is not recognized until middle life, and usually does not reach its fatal conclusion till the middle or later years, its start usually can be traced back to childhood. As in so many other fields of health, any working program for lessening its tremendous wastage of life and effort must deal first and foremost with children.

In 1916 the Association for the Prevention and Relief of Heart Disease started a survey in New York to find out how many children suffered from heart disease, how severely they were incapacitated, and how their educational interests could best be met. The war interrupted the work, and it was re-commenced in 1919, covering a group of schools which registered about 130,000 children. The report of the committee, signed by Dr. Robert Halsey, its chairman, has just been published, giving the findings of the committee's study of this group of handicapped children.

Prior to 1917 New York children who were found to be suffering from heart disease but still were able to attend school, were placed in classes with crippled children, where there was closer supervision and less physical activity than in the regular grades. In 1917 a group of special cardiac classes were established, through the cooperation of the city departments of health and education, the Cardiac Committee of the Public Education Association, which donated $30,000 for the experiment to supplement a special city grant of $75,000, and physicians and social workers of several cardiac clinics and social agencies, who contributed their services and, in some cases, food, equipment, and the use of buildings.

In these classes each child was inspected by the nurse on his arrival. If his temperature was more than 100° F, he was sent home, or rested in a reclining chair in a quiet room until the nurse could accompany him home. If he had no fever he followed the regular class program, which called for a morning session, a hot luncheon at school followed by a rest period, an afternoon session, and, in most cases, a special program of supervised recreation and elementary vocational training after school hours, to keep him from the streets with their disastrously vigorous play. Monthly meetings were held to instruct parents in the special needs of these children. Each class was under the regular supervision of a cardiac clinic. Despite the fact that so much of the professional service and special supplies

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and equipment were contributed, the cost of these groups came to $210 per school year in comparison with $80.95 in the regular grades.

This method, of necessity, would be possible only in the very large cities where there are many children afflicted with heart disease. It is expensive. The survey of the association aimed to define the need for special education of cardiopathic children; to find out whether such special classes were an ideal solution, to be adopted whenever possible, or whether another program could be advocated which would give them equal protection and opportunity. Each of the schools included in the survey had at least one cardiac class; in all of them the enrollment was 475, against which a group of 475 healthy children of about the same age and class was used as a control group.

The first question naturally was—what proportion of children can be expected to need this special sort of care, and how can they be classified as to the degree of their incapacity? Earlier studies had indicated that about 2 per cent of the children of school age had some defect of the heart. In this study, examinations of 130,000 children, conducted under especially favorable circumstances by specialists, showed a rate of seven in a thousand or 0.7 per cent, a figure which has been substantiated by more careful re-examinations of some of the earlier groups. Half of the total number with heart disease (55 per cent) could be rated in Class I of the category adopted by the association in 1921—patients with organic heart disease who are able to carry on their habitual physical activity. Slightly more than a third (37 per cent) fell in Group II-a—those who can carry on with slightly diminished physical activity; 7 per cent were in Group II-b, who must diminish physical activity greatly; and 1 per cent in Group III, who cannot be permitted any physical activity. In other words, in a school population of 10,000, there would be probably about 70 children who had heart disease, but 64 of these could probably get along, *under supervision,* with little or no limitation of exercise. Any child rated in the third class should be kept in bed at home or in a hospital; and almost all the children in Class II-b require bed care in their own home, or in a convalescent home, so that the problem of the remaining 6 is not one which concerns the public schools, even through the visiting teachers, as the studies of the committee showed that these children were too ill to profit much by instruction.

Adequate supervision of the other children means first, to find them. The committee recommends that the Board of Education and the Board of Health work together to ensure a thorough examination of every child entering school for the first time. When such an examination finds a child "cardiopathic," he should then be referred to the family physician or a cardiac clinic for re-examination and classification. All remediable defects of teeth and tonsils should be corrected as soon as possible. The school nurse is assigned to this duty of seeing that these measures are followed out. Every cardiac case is to be considered an active case, with regular periodical re-examinations by the physician or the clinic, and special examinations after any acute illness.

With such care Class I children may take part in the regular school program, except competitive games. The Class II-a children should be grouped with other handicapped children, such as the cripples. They should be excused from fire drills, and allowed to enter and leave school at other times and by other stairs, than those in regular use. The nurse should take their temperatures every morning, and forbid any with a temperature of more than 100° F to exercise. They should have a hot lunch and a rest period of an hour in the middle of the day, and a special session from three to five with supervised recreation, quiet games, and vocational training, coordinated with their homes by a system of social service to take account of family, race, religion, and social aspirations. Convalescent homes which accommodate twenty-five or more children of Classes I and II, should be provided with public school teachers and equipment.

While many of the children in the special classes in New York showed their ability to progress at the usual rate, some of the series of psychological tests showed an average I.Q. of 87, as compared to an average of 90 in the control group. The committee felt that its data was insufficient to warrant a conclusion, but recommends that this point be studied further.

In these ways almost any organized school system can protect children with damaged hearts and salvage them for what, with proper safeguards, usually can be made a long and useful life. Prevention must go behind this problem, to the pre-school years, where the trouble originated in almost all of the New York children who were studied. Two-thirds of them had a history of tonsillitis; 44 per cent of rheumatism; 15 per cent, of chorea (St. Vitus' dance); 16 per cent, of diphtheria; and 15 per cent of scarlet fever.

The Compensations of Illness

Every now and then it pays to let the psychiatrist look in on our illnesses. From the third issue of Mental Health, the monthly broadcast of the Mental Hygiene Society of Maryland, and the newest of the state society publications, comes food for thought for those who are contemplating a future indisposition. Presumably it is to be credited to Dr. Charles B. Thompson, executive secretary of the society and editor of its bulletin, which already reaches a mailing list of some four thousand.

TO BE well for most of us involves getting up early, going to work, coming up to every one's standard of us, and having no excuse for being disagreeable, forgetful, dull, or cranky, and no right to demand special consideration of any kind. Day in and day out, this gets to be rather a grind. When sickness comes—perhaps physical sickness, perhaps a neurotic substitute—then comes also the relief of letting go. No more getting up, no more work, and, above all, no more critical attitude from anyone. Instead, the most comfortable bed in the house, general solicitude, and a gratifying attention to our whims. We may not think much about this contrast. It has come to our notice so early that we have forgotten how well we understand ourselves. Even a four-year-old may sense that a stomach-ache turneth away wrath, and a ten-year-old has learned for a certainty that a head-ache absolves from study. But adults cannot use their ailments so naively. The more responsible our position the more severe must be the illness which makes us relinquish our hold. Our conscious determination to keep well, and our less clear temptation to seek refuge in illness may involve us in a painful struggle. But when the fight is over, and we are safely tucked in bed, with our hands lying relaxed and aimless on the neatly turned-down sheets, then come the compensations.

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These percentages are far higher among the cardiopathic children than in the control group. In adults syphilis is a frequent forerunner of heart disease, but in these cases it was rare. The moral drawn by the committee is the simple but essential recommendation which underlies all health programs: proper food, which will build up a strong body to resist infection; the avoidance of infection of any kind whenever it is possible; a longer convalescence when illness does occur, and frequent examinations by a competent physician to detect and repair damage at the earliest possible moment.

THEY NOT ONLY see it in the papers but hear it in the air. The United States Public Health Service has been quick to utilize modern invention and take on the radio as one more means of carrying its messages. Health talks go out from the government radio stations and twenty-three cooperating stations conducted by newspapers, universities or commercial organizations. They reach twenty-two states, and Canada, and extension of the service to Alaska and Hawaii is under way. Translated by the Foreign Language Information Service into seventeen different tongues, they go to Americans who are inaccessible in English. Correspondence on one health talk came back from Czechoslovakia! Not the least exciting part of the new departure is that it has entailed very little additional expense to the Health Service.

PERHAPS the most thrilling use of the radio is to prescribe for sick and injured sailors at sea. For more than a year messages have been forwarded to the Marine Hospitals from the ships' radios via the commercial companies, asking help for more than a score of different diseases and for injuries. When diagnosis can be established accurately, the Service frequently can prescribe the remedy, for most ships carry the Ships' Medicine Chest, a sailors' medical handbook, and the simple, standard remedies it advocates.

THE BOSTON Metropolitan Chapter of the American Red Cross not only has broadcasted a series of health talks, written by Henry Copley Greene and vouched for by the most eminent specialists in their respective fields, but has published them in a booklet, Listen In. "If you begin it," says Richard D. Cabot in a warmly enthusiastic preface, "you will probably read it through, and remember much of it." . . . "It is a heavy burden to be writing a book on hygiene at all; but if one is compelled by one's conscience and by the public demand to do such a thing, I don't believe it can be much better done than Mr. Greene has done it."

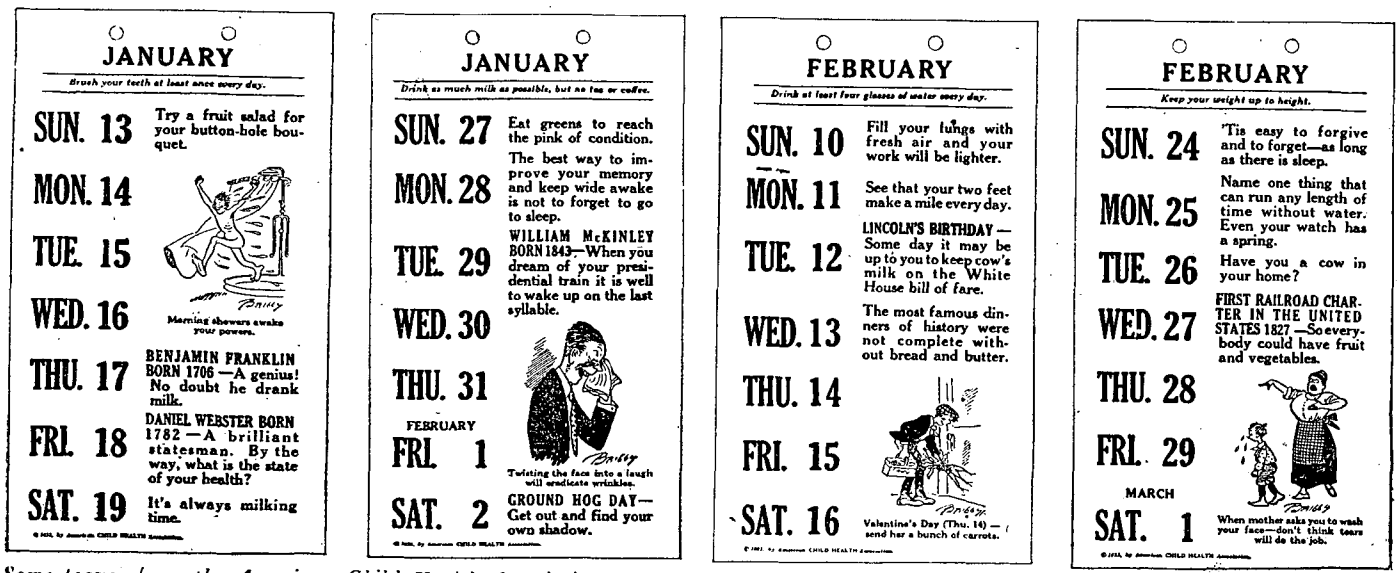
ENCOURAGED by the New York State subsidy which matches county appropriations for new work in public health, the board of supervisors of Allegany County have appropriated $6,000 for a county tuberculosis nursing service.

DAYTON has worked out a new bit of municipal cooperation in caring for the sick. Three thousand chrysanthemums, grown in the city green-houses, under the supervision of the Division of Parks, were turned over to the visiting nurses to be taken into cheerless homes.

WHEN MEASLES, or mumps, or any other contagious disease appears in a schoolroom in Palo Alto, each child who has been exposed carries home a printed form, notifying his parents, telling them the time at which he might be expected to develop the disease, and its chief early symptoms, and urging them to keep him at home, send for the doctor, and notify the health department at once if any suspicious signs appear.

WHEN YOUR CHILD greets his dinner with yells of defiance instead of smacking of lips, spare the rod and consult the psychiatrist. From the Massachusetts Society for Mental Health comes a leaflet entitled Does Your Child Fuss About His Food? by Dr. Douglas A. Thom, giving the suggestions reached at his well known Habit Clinic, which deals with difficult children. The leaflet may be obtained for five cents in stamps from the office of the society, 5 Joy Street, Boston. This is the first of a series, later numbers of which will contain suggestions on temper tantrums, changes of personality, and so on.

HOW TRENTON re-organized health supervision and education in its public schools—and especially, how the schools staged a large-scale experiment in nutrition as a demonstration for the whole city—is the content of Growing Healthy Children, School Health Studies No. 4, the latest of the bulletins prepared by the Child Health Organization and published by the federal Bureau of Education. Like the stories of Chicago and of Newton, Mass., which were told in the two preceding pamphlets, it is remarkable chiefly for the enthusiasm and ingenuity of the physicians, teachers, and chil-


JANUARY
Brush your teeth at least once every day.
SUN. 13 Try a fruit salad for your button-hole bouquet.
MON. 14
TUE. 15
WED. 16 Morning showers awake your powers.
THU. 17 BENJAMIN FRANKLIN BORN 1706—A genius! No doubt he drank milk.
FRI. 18 DANIEL WEBSTER BORN 1782—A brilliant statesman. By the way, what is the state of your health?
SAT. 19 It's always milking time.
JANUARY
Drink as much milk as possible, but no tea or coffee.
SUN. 27 Eat greens to reach the pink of condition.
MON. 28 The best way to improve your memory and keep wide awake is not to forget to go to sleep.
TUE. 29 WILLIAM McKINLEY BORN 1843—When you dream of your presidential train it is well to wake up on the last syllable.
WED. 30
THU. 31
FEBRUARY
FRI. 1 Twisting the face into a laugh will eradicate wrinkles.
SAT. 2 GROUND HOG DAY—Get out and find your own shadow.
FEBRUARY
Drink at least four glasses of water every day.
SUN. 10 Fill your lungs with fresh air and your work will be lighter.
MON. 11 See that your two feet make a mile every day.
TUE. 12 LINCOLN'S BIRTHDAY—Some day it may be up to you to keep cow's milk on the White House bill of fare.
WED. 13 The most famous diners of history were not complete without bread and butter.
THU. 14
FRI. 15
SAT. 16 Valentine's Day (Thu. 14)—send her a bunch of carrots.
FEBRUARY
Keep your weight up to height.
SUN. 24 'Tis easy to forgive and to forget—as long as there is sleep.
MON. 25 Name one thing that can run any length of time without water. Even your watch has a spring.
TUE. 26 Have you a cow in your home?
WED. 27 FIRST RAILROAD CHARTER IN THE UNITED STATES 1827—So everybody could have fruit and vegetables.
THU. 28
FRI. 29
MARCH
SAT. 1 When mother asks you to wash your face—don't think tears will do the job.

Some leaves from the American Child Health Association's year-round calendar, written by Cliff Goldsmith and illustrated by Briggs

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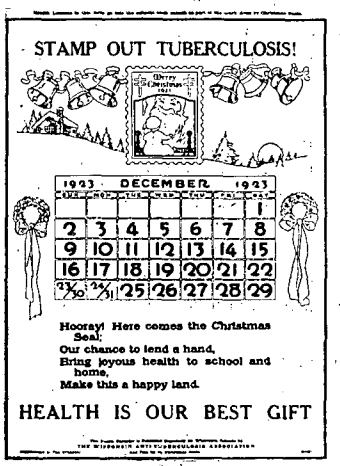
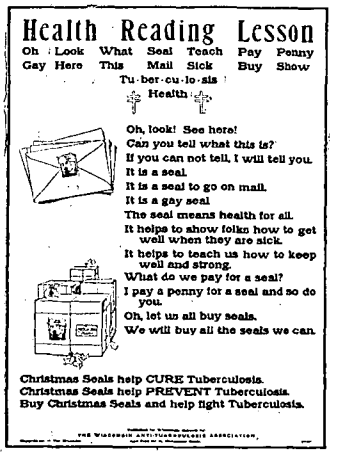
dren who worked together in it. Trenton has blazed a number of trails to health which should be accessible to almost any class or school sufficiently interested to follow it. The pamphlet may be ordered from the Government Printing Office at a cost of five cents.

THE CRUSADER, monthly messenger of the Wisconsin Anti-Tuberculosis Association, has tilted a new lance against the enemy. With each issue now comes a special supplement for the schools, in the form of a poster calendar for the current month, with an appropriate health jingle and outline design to be crayoned by the children themselves. When the calendar


STAMP OUT TUBERCULOSIS!
1923 DECEMBER 1923
Hooray! Here comes the Christmas Seal;
Our chance to lend a hand,
Bring joyous health to school and home,
Make this a happy land.
HEALTH IS OUR BEST GIFT


Health Reading Lesson
Oh Look What Seal Teach Pay Penny
Gay Here This Mail Sick Buy Show
Tu-ber-cu-lo-sis
Health
Oh, look! See here!
Can you tell what this is?
If you can not tell, I will tell you.
It is a seal.
It is a seal to go on mail.
It is a gay seal
The seal means health for all.
It helps to show folkn how to get well when they are sick.
It helps to teach us how to keep well and strong.
What do we pay for a seal?
I pay a penny for a seal and so do you.
Oh, let us all buy seals.
We will buy all the seals we can.
Christmas Seals help CURE Tuberculosis.
Christmas Seals help PREVENT Tuberculosis.
Buy Christmas Seals and help fight Tuberculosis.

is out of date, turn over the poster—and presto!—on the other side appears a reading lesson for the primary grades on the virtues of the cow and her products or similarly hygienic subjects. The posters are paid for by Christmas seal money, and give one tangible return to the children from their efforts to promote the sale.

"IN CONNECTION with your admirable article on periodic health examinations," (See The Survey, October 15, 1923) writes the manager of a large life insurance company, "would it not be a wise plan to urge policy holders who are entitled to free health examinations to take advantage of this privilege? . . . Figures of the Life Extension Institute indicate that 38 life insurance companies offer, either directly or through the above organization, this free health service. These companies represent over 53,000,000 policy holders—perhaps several thousand more—about 35,000,000 different persons of all ages and in all sections of the country. A very large percentage of these persons are entitled to this annual check-up and I doubt very much whether a fraction of one per cent of them are availing themselves of it. . . . The life insurance companies are, very properly, attempting to safeguard this health examination from being utilized by the solicitor as a means of getting new business."

SOME YEARS AGO the Helen Day Nursery in Chicago learned through a survey of the Research Bureau of Jewish Charities that it had outlived its need. With rare community spirit its board of directors announced that they wished to make the plant available for some other service for children, which was actively needed. The hospitals of Chicago showed a pressing need for greater facilities for tonsil and adenoid operations for children. In some of them there was a waiting list of three hundred children, many of whom would be obliged to wait many months for a much needed operation. Accordingly the nursery was turned over to the Michael Reese Hospital, and re-modeled as the Michael Reese Tonsil and Adenoid Clinic for children whose parents were unable to pay for private service. In two years and a half, instead of carrying on faithfully a task which no longer seemed necessary, it has made possible tonsil and adenoid operations for more than four thousand children, without a single mishap.

INVESTIGATION by the teachers' unions in a number of the cities of Holland has disclosed that from one-third to four-fifths of the boys between six and twelve years of age were smoking, and that the habit had a bad effect upon their physical and mental condition. Following a campaign of education, in which the government cooperated, ordinances have been obtained in several cities to prohibit the sale of tobacco to children and to make smoking by young people a punishable offense. In Germany tobacco may not be sold or delivered to persons under sixteen years of age in hotels or mercantile establishments, according to recent legislation, and the delivery or serving of drinks which contain alcohol to persons under eighteen years of age is prohibited.

SUNLIGHT and cod-liver oil will cure rickets in a child. But how can the disease be wiped out of a community? The federal Children's Bureau has started a rickets demonstration at New Haven, Conn., which may evolve a practicable method of applying medical knowledge of the disease to a definite group of people. The study, which probably will cover three years, includes a section of New Haven with about 15,000 inhabitants, among whom there are annually about 400 births. The staff, headed by Dr. M. M. Eliot of the Pediatrics Department of the Yale Medical School, will concern itself with repeated physical examinations of all new-born children, including the use of the X-ray, and with the accepted treatment with cod-liver oil and sunlight. This group of children will be contrasted with groups born in other years to determine the success of their efforts at prevention of the disease.

WE ARE USED to seeing in the movies the dramatic journeys of the good, gray-haired physician speeding by motor, train, or aeroplane to win a race with Death. Less spectacular, perhaps, but hardly less dramatic is the recent race which a health department engineer and a chlorination apparatus waged with a possible typhoid epidemic. Following the dry autumn the village of Cuba in southern New York suddenly found itself obliged to take its water from a creek which ran through farm land and was heavily polluted. A telegram to the state department of health brought back the reply that the water probably was safe if it was chlorinated, and that the apparatus was on the way. The railroads cut their red tape, and allowed the plant to be put on the fastest express, which ordinarily carries no baggage. At Rochester, where a transfer had to be made with a close connection, a taxi was waiting to rush the engineer and his equipment from one station to the other. Accordingly, by nightfall, the apparatus was at work, providing safe water under circumstances which otherwise would have set the stage for an epidemic.

JUST HOW CONSTANT must be the vigilance to hold the hardly won victories of health is illustrated by an episode in the work of the New York state board in its fight against typhoid. Last summer the city of Jamestown suffered an epidemic with nineteen cases of the disease. There had been a recent change in the water supply, to which the trouble was laid by most of the residents. Investigation by the district state health officer, Dr. John J. Mahoney, exonerated the water, and disclosed that all the victims of the disease had obtained milk from the same dairy, which was operated under very good conditions. However, the dairyman's wife had been a nurse before her marriage. Several years ago she became ill after nursing a number of typhoid fever patients. Laboratory examinations proved that this illness must have been typhoid fever, which had left her a "carrier" of the disease. The state commissioner of health has declared that it is his belief that no one who ever has suffered from a prolonged fever which might have been typhoid should be permitted to engage in the milk industry unless repeated laboratory tests have proved that this condition does not exist.

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SOCIAL PRACTICE

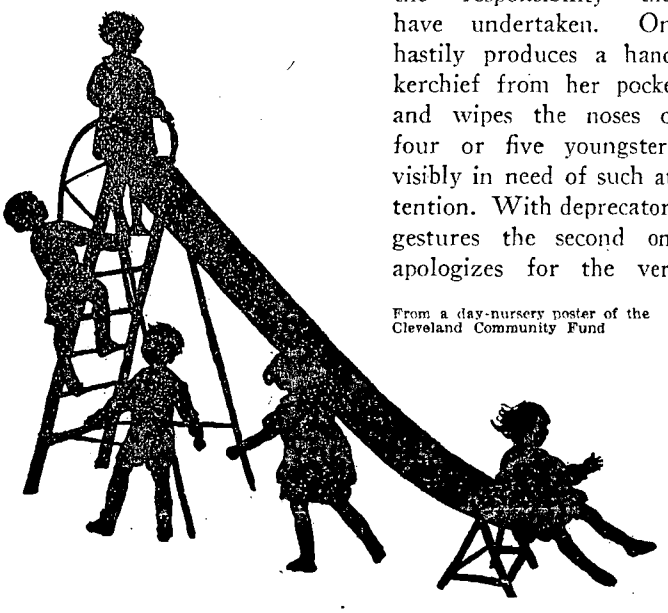
Too Near to Be Seen?

WITHIN the past few years, more than one American organization has concerned itself, and rightly so, with the welfare of children in foreign lands. During the great war it was no uncommon sight in France for the khaki uniform to join in a game of tag or ball, or for the matter of that, to pick up a crying toddler. Yet what does the public of to-day really know or care about American childhood? In its own cities, at its very doors, little children are being herded together, day after day, in unsuitable buildings, and inadequately protected against mental, moral and physical health risks, while the public at large, and health authorities in particular, look on with indifference.

Let me present a picture of a so-called day nursery opened, as are all day nurseries, for the care of children of working mothers, in one of the largest cities of America in the spring of 1923.

In a long narrow room are twenty-five children, boys and girls, ranging from twenty months to ten years of age. With the exception of a couple of carpenter's benches and a table, there is no equipment whatsoever. The lower part of the room is filled with a number of chairs of the kind used at meetings (in rows, joined together at the base). Half a dozen three-year-olds are seated stiffly upright on these chairs, from whence they gaze dumbly ahead, having nothing with which to occupy their minds or hands. The rest of the children rush madly up and down the room squabbling among themselves with blows and tears, after the fashion of all children lacking playthings, supervision, and leadership.

Two pleasant-faced women, speaking no English, are in charge. It is plain that they are, themselves, kindly mothers, totally ignorant of all methods and standards of child care, bewildered at the responsibility they have undertaken. One hastily produces a handkerchief from her pocket and wipes the noses of four or five youngsters, visibly in need of such attention. With deprecatory gestures the second one apologizes for the very dirty floor. The children have just lunched on bread and soup, they report; later they will have "a cup of tea or coffee."



From a day-nursery poster of the Cleveland Community Fund

This is the "nursery," but the women have access to the room above and, leaving the group entirely unsupervised, they conduct the visitor upstairs. The second room is definitely devoted to meetings and furnished for this purpose. A baby of thirteen months is asleep on two chairs against the wall with a bench drawn up to serve as a protection from falling; it is covered with a woman's plush coat. Two filled nursing bottles, uncorked, and one three-parts empty, stand on a wooden shelf, not far from the window through which the hot sun is pouring. This constitutes the baby's supply for the day.

There are no bathing facilities and only one toilet—in the yard. Needless to add, there is neither medical inspection nor admission standards.

THESE or similar conditions are true of more than one so-called nursery maintained under various auspices. How general is the indifference that permits such conditions to exist?

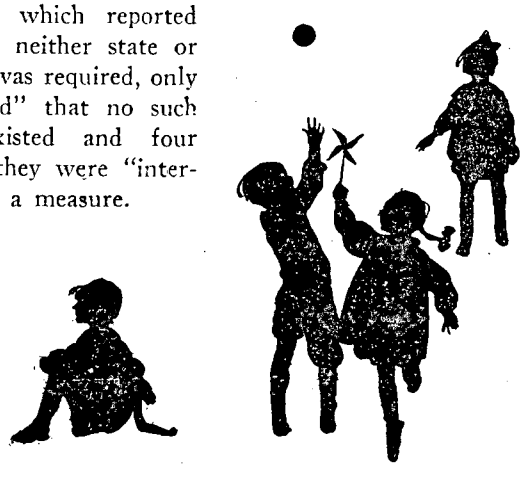
The writer recently sent out to every state in the Union, a form letter addressed to the child welfare department, where one was known to exist, to the state department of health in other cases, and asking for information concerning the status of day nurseries. The specific data requested were:

A copy of the state ordinance requiring licensing and supervision of day nurseries (if in existence) with the number and name of any cities with separate ordinances, or

Plans for state or city supervision, where no ordinance existed.

Of the 48 letters sent out, 27 received recognition, 21 remained unanswered. Of the 27 states which replied one carries a statute on its books, three have a state license system, two more reported a state law and one or two city licenses in effect as well. That is, six states report some measure of state protection. Two more reported the nurseries in their largest cities were operating under a city ordinance.

Of the 13 which reported definitely that neither state or city licensing was required, only two "regretted" that no such licenseship existed and four claimed that they were "interested" in such a measure.



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Of the remaining six answers to the form letter, two sent ordinances referring to boarding homes, apparently with no realization of the difference, two said naïvely that they "did not think" they had any ordinance affecting day nurseries, another stated that a certain city was operating under an ordinance while the city in question denied the fact, and perhaps the climax was reached by the department of health which referred the letter to the attorney general!

It is significant that of the 21 states which failed to reply, the National Federation of Day Nurseries—the only national organization working to bring about state supervision of nurseries—lists in its directory 15, containing 52 cities possessing a total of 92 nurseries. This list is of 1921 with such corrections as have come to the attention of the National Federation Office. Authoritative information from near-by states suggests that the total number remains fairly static, although old nurseries go out of existence and new ones are started, with a facility and frequency which but emphasizes the need for careful supervision.

In all, this same directory lists 239 cities in the United States containing a total of 580 nurseries. Of these it is known that a total of 237 nurseries in 62 cities are operating under state or city licenseship; that is they are required to meet minimum standards before they can be established and remain under supervision of state or city health or welfare authorities after they are in operation.

When it is remembered that nurseries exist under a hundred varied auspices, including every religious denomination from the Mennonite Sisters to the Paulist Fathers, under such widely differing agencies as the board of education, the Fruit Canner's Association, home economics agencies, factories, chambers of commerce, the Big Sisters, cotton mills, the American Red Cross, the Rotary Club, the Salvation Army, college fraternities, the Volunteers of America and the Latter Day Saints, the remaining figures of unlicensed day nurseries—a total of 343 spread over 177 cities—take on added significance. To the social worker, the very difference in name is suggestive: take for example, a "Japanese Garden for Children" in contrast to the "Industrial Building of the Female Charitable Society."

HOW large is the group of children in unlicensed day nurseries? It is hard to tell. The average daily attendance in the forty nurseries of the largest city involved is roughly estimated at 2,000. If this number can be used as a basis of comparison, the daily average in 343 nurseries would amount to 17,150. Taking 16,000 as a conservative estimate, which allows for smaller suburban nurseries, experience proves that even in a well regulated nursery there is an additional turnover during the year of at least 25 per cent. In many nurseries this figure would run considerably higher. In all, therefore, a total of not less than 20,000 children per year are being handled throughout the states in such unlicensed nurseries *as are known to exist*. This number will be increased by children in cities where it is not even compulsory to register the existence of the nursery.

This estimate might seem excessive compared with the nursery statistics issued by the Federal Bureau of Census which shows the total number of children under care throughout the states on February 1, 1923, to have been 28,830 children in 609 nurseries. It must be remembered, however, that the day nursery group fluctuates not only month by month, but day by day. The general statement is borne out by The Philadelphia Welfare Federation campaign figures, which report a total of 1786 children cared for in the 15 federated nurseries during the period from September 1, 1922, to August 31, 1923, inclusive. This figure is interesting as against the Bureau of Census total attendance on February 1 of 2,011 children in the 60 nurseries throughout the state of Pennsylvania.

While it would be grossly unfair to suggest that all, or even the majority of unlicensed nurseries, are as lacking in standards as the one pictured in the beginning of this article, yet the fact remains that such so-called nurseries can and do exist. As long as day nurseries can be started without reporting to any source of standardization and run without adequate supervision, little children will be open to exploitation. Even if all of them were opened for philanthropic purposes, children would still be the victims of ignorance and mistaken judgment. The only safety lies in compulsory registration with the department of health or welfare with a license system to enforce such minimum standards as will safeguard the mental, moral and physical health of every child involved.

FRANCES COLBOURNE

On Parole

PERHAPS it is because comparatively few women and girls fall into the hands of the law that so much more headway has been made in dealing with them than has been made in dealing with the male offenders. The sheer volume of men and boys passing through courts, jails, reformatories and prisons seems to stagger the attempt to introduce that element of individual attention upon which intelligent measures must be based. Certain it is that in the care and reeducation of criminals and delinquents of all classes, the delinquent girl generally comes the nearest to getting what is considered necessary to prepare for a normal life.

One cannot but be impressed with the wide chasm which exists between what is now done in some places for girls and what is done in other parts of the delinquency field. An example of the former is the supervision of paroled girls by the state of Massachusetts. A description of this service is in course of publication by the New York School of Social Work as Monograph 3 of the Child Welfare Series of the Studies in Social Work. Edith N. Burleigh, who is in charge of the Massachusetts parole work for girls, and Frances R. Harris are the authors.

As these authors point out, parole applies to a highly selected group of people and has fundamental differences from probation. The paroled individual is usually one who has been tried on probation and failed, has been returned to court and has had a period of training in an institution. These experiences are all calculated to impress on him the attitude of society toward the offender—even the juvenile offender—and they create an entirely different situation from that presented at the initial stages of an offender's career where probation can be used.

When a girl is paroled a decision must be made as to whether she shall be immediately returned to her own home or placed in some other home to do housework for wages or to go to school. "The conviction of Massachusetts has been that parole of a young girl of seventeen in the community at large, so to speak, directly from the restraints of an institution, to work and to play unsupervised, is a situation too full of peril for the girl to be attempted." The

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When Housework Fails

Indicating that you can't parole girls by rote

THE father of this Italian girl was an illiterate, ignorant ne'er-do-well. The mother, reputed to be of good habits and health, was early separated from the girl, who, when ten years old, with her oldest brother followed her father and married sister to this country. The family had migrated to France before this and the mother remained there. The father was not a good influence, leaving the girl without supervision and none of the relatives here gave her any protection or training. She quarreled often with the father and sister and drifted about from one home to another.

In spite of having to learn English the child had a good record in school. She skipped Grade III and was in Grade IV when she left school to go to work at fourteen. Her work was spasmodic, a brief period in a shoe factory at $2.50 per week, then housework. Her employers found her incapable, undependable, and untruthful. Going to the movies and walking the streets seemed to be her only recreation. For some time before her commitment she had been staying out late at night and sometimes all night. She ran away twice, the second time with a man boarding in the family where she was working. As a result of this escapade she was sent to the Industrial School.

Here she remained two years. She was quick-tempered, stubborn and very excitable; was untidy about her work and herself, though she improved while in the institution. She was much interested in her school work and proved to be capable of applying herself. She showed a real aptitude for sewing and loved music.

The things to be considered in placing this girl were her small physique, her quick temper and excitability, and the fact that she was not capable. A placid woman, who sang beautifully and whose home was simple, with unexacting standards, was chosen as the girl's employer. At first the girl, though lonely for the companionship of the girls at the school, did well. She was shy and reserved and found new adjustments difficult. Her work needed constant supervision because of her natural slackness. She went to the beach with the family for the summer, but her interest began to wane in the fall and instead of accepting the usual pleasures offered her by the family she gradually became contrary, refusing to meet people or to go anywhere. She became unhappy and depressed. Her work grew constantly more careless. Finally she was removed from this place at her own urgent request after she had been there a little more than a year.

A SECOND home was tried but it proved a misfit and at the end of three months' trial and a two weeks' rest the girl was given what she had longed for, the opportunity to do other work. A very simple home was found where the woman was willing to accept a small sum for the girl's board and some assistance in the housework. The girl, who had been entirely trustworthy, was allowed to find a job for herself. She secured a place as stockgirl in a large millinery shop and from the first showed a sense of responsibility.

At the end of two months she became very ill with influenza, needing a month's hospital and convalescent care. Much to her delight she was taken back into the shop and was placed in a girls' boarding home. At first she held aloof from the girls, who found her difficult to get along with. Very gradually, as she became more sure of herself in her work, her social adjustments became more normal. Mingling with many girls developed in her a social sense, which she herself had not realized that she possessed. Her faults, particularly her untidiness and her extreme sensitiveness, needed tactful handling, but she finally overcame them all except her fiery temper. The other girls grew to like her so much that they learned how to meet her uncontrolled moods, and, while never yielding to her stubbornly held opinions, they tried not to irritate her and soon the girl's real good sense and sweetness would bring her back to a saner point of view.

This girl early set a goal for herself. When she first came from the school she declared her intention of saving all her money to go to France to be with her mother. She never wavered for a moment from this determination, the indifference of the father and sister to the mother having helped to strengthen the girl's devotion.

The boarding home offered other advantages besides companionship—advantages of education which the girl eagerly grasped. She was self-supporting during the entire period of her parole, prompt in the payment of her board and she sacrificed many of the pretty things she loved to save her money.

She was given an honorable discharge by the trustees and a year and a half later attained her object.

THE visitor in this case soon realized that the best thing she could do for this particular girl was to let her "find herself." She had shown even then the elements of such a sterling character that the visitor deliberately withdrew into the position of encouraging friend who advised when asked.

This girl needed work other than housework to enable her to work out her own problems more freely (she was particularly non-suggestible); in justice to her strong desire for more congenial occupation, and because her conduct had been exemplary; for the development that came with the wider contacts of the other work and of the boarding home; and because she would undoubtedly have become discouraged at housework, probably with disastrous results.

advantages of putting a girl with a carefully selected family have been found to be many. The habits of personal hygiene required by the industrial school are encouraged and confirmed. Ideals of home life become tangible and crystallized. Being a member of a household gives the girl connections in the community and a start, and where the employer has been carefully selected, intelligent protection as well. Teamwork with the parole visitor is more easily achieved with the mother in a household than with other types of employers. "Although for the girl on parole, the advantages to be gained by living in a family other than her own and doing housework are very real and beneficial, like all methods of training, this one should be discontinued when the need of the girl has been met or the chances for growth under its influence no longer exist."

The selection of homes where paroled girls will receive these benefits and the placement of girls in these homes are accomplished only through the most careful discerning work. The investigators remark:

The first step in any intelligent placement is, of course, a thorough study of the girl's history before commitment found in the report of the investigation previously made, and of her development and reactions at the institution, including a statement of her health. The next is to have an interview with the girl. She must be encouraged to talk freely about herself; her hopes, her plans, her desire, her ambitions. The placement worker will thus gain a picture of the girl, not only as she is, but of her potentialities, so that whatever program of work is decided upon will have the elasticity to allow for the development of these. When the girl's wishes and ambitions appear to be incompatible with her need of supervision or her intellectual capacity, a plan must be worked out *with her* that will not exclude her own ideas, but will so temper and shape them, that they will at once satisfy her strivings for self-expression and meet her immediate needs. This task is not easy of accomplishment and implies in the placement worker that power of creative thinking that sees the girl not only as *she is,* but as she *may be,* and that can translate that picture into ideals accepted by the girl's own mind. It must be noted in this connection that the tact and sympathy with which the girl's desires and plans are thus first met and the interesting glimpse of a "new beginning" which this worker is able to bring to the girl

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will largely determine the girl's attitude toward her new life on parole.

After securing a large amount of information regarding the prospective employer, her family, her home and her standing in the community, the employer is interviewed by the parole visitor. The home and its various members are carefully considered in relation to their probable influence on the girls who may be placed there. To quote again:

The visitor takes up with the employer for special consideration the question of work and of wages; the possibility of providing suitable recreation; and the opportunity to be given the girl to attend the church of her own faith. Every girl is placed with people of her own religion, who will see that she goes to church regularly with some responsible person and that she gets the benefits of her church connections. This is carefully supervised by her visitor. The visitor notes carefully whether the girl's room meets adequately the requirements for health; notes its location, whether it is so widely separated from the rooms occupied by the members of the family that she could come and go without supervision; notes its furnishings in comparison with the rest of the home—whether it is comfortable or so poor that it will arouse feelings of envy and unhappiness in the girl. The worker must find out whether an employer is so completely absorbed by the affairs of her family

She Didn't Go "There"

A parole story with the moral: Don't lose heart

A MONTH before her seventeenth birthday a girl was sent to the Industrial School on the charge of being "a lewd, wanton and lascivious person." She had been born out of wedlock and though the father claims her as his daughter he often accused the mother before the girl of going about with other men. The girl herself began to have sex experiences with school boys at the age of nine. At thirteen she was sent to a semi-private reform school. When after two years she was taken home, the matron reported that she had "abominable habits and all her tendencies were bad." She remained home about a year working intermittently or going around with extremely bad girls and with marines. Since early childhood she had stolen small sums from her parents; at this time she stole valuable jewelry and clothing from an employer where she had been doing housework. In court, where it was established that she had had immoral relations with several marines, she said that she would rather go to a reform school than return to her home and she was sent to the Industrial School for Girls.

Here she remained for one year and ten months. She was reported as sly and deceitful; she stole and lied. She had a quick temper, was susceptible to suggestions and was a good worker.

Two months before her nineteenth birthday she was paroled in a family at housework. During the two years she was on parole eleven housework places were found for her; two boarding homes were used; and she was an inmate of two hospitals: one for mental examination, the other for operation after having induced an abortion. Once she ran away and was gone several weeks. When found she was in filthy condition and had been immoral many times.

To this wretched, mentally unclean, sexually uncontrolled child the visitor had sought always to give of her cleanest and sweetest thoughts. The visitor had strained her patience to the limit, restrained her natural disgust at the girl's animal-like tendencies, and had tried to teach her, with all the love and understanding at her command, the concept of clean living and healthy thinking. Employers of this girl had been taken into council by the visitor and constantly pleaded with to give the girl

The measurement of accomplishment in parole work is difficult if not impossible. Technically, parole from the industrial school ends when a girl is twenty-one years old, yet who can judge on a day thus arbitrarily set whether a girl is a success or a failure? That there must needs be a wide margin of error in any such classification is indicated by one of the instances cited by Miss Burleigh and Miss Harris.

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another chance, to try some new method of kindness and consideration (the father had thrown pots and kettles at her to correct her), and they had responded like soldiers to the full extent of their endurance. All to what purpose? When the girl went home a month before her twenty-first birthday the visitor felt that here was a girl being returned to society as marred and twisted as when she was sent out of it.

Because the visitor felt her own failure in this girl's failure she could not keep from voicing her keen disappointment and regret in her parting words to the girl: "I am more sorry than I can tell you that I have not been able in these two years to make you see things differently. Now you are twenty-one and will be held responsible for our actions. Before, you were considered a child and sent to a *training school;* now you are a woman and will be sent to *prison* if you break the laws which have been made for the protection of all. If you keep on the way you have been going I am afraid I shall hear from you next from *'there.'*"

Several months went by, however, and the visitor did not hear from the girl from *"there."* One raw wintry day the visitor came into the office and found her desk literally smothered under a huge bouquet of brilliant carnations. She asked jocularly of the other visitors nearby, "What's the celebration?"—and out of a dim corner of the room a little girl made her way to the visitor, "I wanted you to know that I didn't have to go *'there'* and that I appreciated what you did for me." This was six months after she had been out of the care of the trustees. A year later the visitor received the following letter:

My dear Miss H——;—

Gee, but it seems nice to start a letter to you. I have been going to write you, for the longest while. At last I am doing it.

Well, how is Miss Burleigh and yourself. Fine I hope. You will probably be surprised to hear from me. You have probably by now forgotten about your "Emma," since she became a married woman.

Well, Miss H——, I certainly couldn't be any happier. I don't know how I ever got such a good man.

We have a cozy little home. Everything a person in our class of hard working people could want for.

My husband just a month or so ago got me a lovely new Singer sewing machine. Also a nice Columbia Graphonola. Our home is nice and cozy. It keeps me busy keeping it looking nice.

We have just moved in another house, as we only had three rooms and it was on the third floor. No garden room. Where we are now, we have 6 rooms. 4 rooms downstairs and two up. My kitchen, dining-room and front room and my own bedroom are on the first floor. Then I have two bedrooms up. We have a place for a dandy garden.

Miss H——, can't you promise me one day, or at least one afternoon? You can get that train that leaves Boston at 11.22 and gets in——at 12.35 P. M., I will meet you at the train. Please write me *"Yes."* Just name the day, I'm dying to see you. You promised me some day soon, the last time I saw you.

I have so much I would like to show you and talk with you about.

Miss H——, I hope all the girls you have now realize how much interested there visitors are in them. Miss H——, you are more than a friend to me, and I found it out for the truth, my own self. No one had to tell me.

And I hope that sometime after you come out and see me, you will be able to say, "Well, Emma has certainly turned out one of my good girls." Because I have is because you, Miss H—, had patients with me.

Please write me soon and tell me what day you can take off. How I want you to come and meet my hubby.

Your old girl,
Emma

P. S. Please when you write don't put any office address on it.

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or by outside interests that she will have no time or inclination to give some thought to the girl. It is not the ideal of the placement visitor either to obtain the highest wages for the girl, or on the other hand to furnish the public with competent servants, but to meet as nearly as possible the girl's needs for a home in which she can develop physically, mentally and spiritually. In so doing the need of the employer for a helper in her work is met, provided she is willing to pay largely by patient training and kindly interest rather than by high wages.

Of course if the experiment of such placement is unsuccessful, modifications become necessary, as is illustrated by the story in the box on page 397. The experience of the Parole Department with homes which have been used is carefully recorded and consulted before they are used again:

All things being equal it has been found that a home of moderate means and located in a small town or a suburban district at some distance from the business and amusement center is most satisfactory.

In general, whenever a girl has capacity and ambition for education and it is at all possible to arrange for its gratification, these authors counsel the use of the educational resources of the community, particularly the public schools, though care must be exercised to see that there is an adjustment of the child to the particular educational group of which she is to become a member.

As the general conclusions which have grown out of their experience with the parole of girls, the authors offer the following:

The parole system should be separate from the institution and from the court, because the object of parole is to help the paroled person to become reabsorbed in the community and both court and institution are instruments of segregation.

While the technique of any work is more or less dependent upon local conditions and laws, there are certain principles underlying parole to be observed wherever it may be established.

1. Parole should provide for the *continuation of the training* in good habits and the instruction in ways of right living and good citizenship begun in the institution.

2. *Protection* of the individual from exploitation, and of the community from anti-social conduct, must always be kept in mind.

3. *Organization of the resources* available in the community for the re-establishment of the person on parole, which should be considered in every instance, are:

(a) Medical care for the protection of the person on parole and of the community.

(b) Mental examination to determine the individual's accountability and also his abilities and disabilities.

(c) Instruction in principles of mental health to help the person to understand himself as basis for right relations to society.

(d) Educational opportunities.

(e) Work from the point of view of the individual's likes and aptitudes and of developing his powers of responsibility.

(f) Suitable recreational outlets.

"To make effective these principles of parole," is the conclusion, "too much stress cannot be laid upon the personnel of a parole department. Every member of such a department should have had a liberal education and specific social service training. Even more important are certain personal qualities in the worker which are essential to the success of the undertaking: good will, good temper, good judgment and good sense; open-mindedness and tolerance; sympathy and imagination; a sense of humor; love and faith in the onwardness of human nature."

They Guard the Past

THE Board of Children's Guardians of the District of Columbia should have a new name. Something suggestive of an interest in the preservation of antique forms of child care would better fit its present concern. This shift in interest has come about within the last year and has been attended both by heated debate and by that maneuvring which bears the unmistakable stamp of the practiced politician.

It will be recalled that the District of Columbia has several institutions for the care of dependent, defective and delinquent children. Among these are the national training schools to which incorrigible and delinquent children are committed by the courts. There are also the Industrial Home Schools, one for Negro and one for white children who are dependent and neglected.

Now it happens that the members of the Board of Children's Guardians until quite recently were appointed by the judges of the police courts and the judge of the criminal court, while the members of the board of the Industrial Home School received their appointment from the commissioners of the District. While the Board of Children's Guardians received children directly from the Juvenile Court, the school could admit only such children as the guardians turned over to them. Some thirty years ago an agent of the Board of Children's Guardians, then newly created, made an inquiry into the condition of the school and reported what he found. It was not such a picture as would make the Board of Children's Guardians feel quite comfortable to send children there. An irreconcilable difference in opinion and attitude toward the children has grown up between these two public bodies.

The Industrial Home School Board had for years taken the attitude that the children sent to it were delinquents in need of at least two years of strict institutional discipline before anyhing could be done with them. A former member of the Board of Children's Guardians reports that

We felt that our children were not delinquents. Some of them had committed some petty offense because of the conditions in their own homes. Some of them needed careful mental and physical study, but we could not consent to their being treated as they were in the Industrial Home School, where solitary confinement in a room with no windows, light from a skylight but no ventilation, no bedding, no toilet facilities and a diet of bread and water was one of the accepted punishments.

The children got only half-time schooling. The rest of their time was spent not in industrial training but in hard manual labor, the girls working in a most insanitary laundry, doing the laundry for the whole institution under the direction of an ignorant Negro woman who was not capable of training them but was capable of making them work. The same was true right through the various departments. The farmer made the boys assigned to him get up at five in the morning, do the heavy work of cleaning the horses and stable, come back to breakfast if any was left, and then back again to hard work. After dinner they were to be in school. You can imagine we had many absconders. The very worst boys in the institution we were able to do something with when we placed them in well selected family homes.

For about a decade the Board of Children's Guardians cherished the hope of inducing the Industrial Home Board to convert its institution into a model receiving home and center for the thorough study of the children before placing them in private homes. Conference after conference was held but no result followed. The Industrial Home

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School Board took the position that once the children were turned over to them, any further interest, suggestion or complaint on the part of the Guardians was out of order; this in spite of the fact that the law vested continuing responsibility in the Guardians.

As it was becoming more and more evident that there was little or no hope from the institution, Mrs. R. Thomas West, who became the agent of the Board of Children's Guardians in 1919, had been able to show Congress the wisdom of increasing the board's staff to provide eight more field workers and two nurses. Thus she was able to open up more good family homes and to provide supervision for all of the white wards of the board. Accordingly in January, 1922, after consultation with the District Commissioners, the Board of Children's Guardians notified the Industrial Home School that, as the children could be more satisfactorily and less expensively cared for in private homes, there would be no further need to use the facilities of the institution after July 1922.

This involved no radical change in the Board of Children's Guardians' work because it already had some 2,000 children under its care and the maximum capacity of the institution was but 125. One worker was assigned to the special study of these children and of the possibilities of making better arrangements for them. As a result of this study fifty or more of the children were placed with relatives or in other family homes; a few were found to be feeble-minded and were admitted to Vineland and Elwyn. A few were sent to good boarding schools.

As the number of children dwindled at the institution, its board became more and more incensed and finally certain of its members started a campaign of publicity against the Board of Children's Guardians and against the family homes in which children had been placed. The attack started off with a number of malicious stories later proved to be untrue.

In this case the District Commissioners had two investigations made of the private homes in which children had been placed. Both revealed that the homes were good average American homes and many were exceptionally good. But neither the commissioners nor the sensation-mongers were concerned to have that news reach the public. The Board of Children's Guardians itself voted to make no reply. The Washington Post has been making a valiant effort to guide the public aright through an extended campaign of education on constructive measures of child care.

After the institution was closed a conference of the two boards was called by the District Commissioners; the Guardians offered for the present to use the institution as a receiving home even though it is too large and too expensive. The Board of Charities and the commissioners themselves thought this a good plan but the Industrial Home Board would be satisfied with nothing short of resuming on the old basis.

The next point of attack by the Industrial Home Board was Congress. As acting chairman of the House subcommittee on appropriations for the District of Columbia, Representative Cramton led an attempt to attach the following proviso to the Board of Guardians' appropriation:

> Provided, That no portion of this appropriation shall be used by said board for the board and care of any child in a boarding home unless the Industrial Home School, to which it is eligible for admission, is unable to receive it.

After an amusing discussion which revealed the abysmal ignorance of several of the participants, this amendment was finally struck out.

In the course of the discussion of this proviso, attention was called to the need of clarifying the functions of these two boards, with the result that through an amendment introduced by Representative Zihlman of Maryland the board of the Industrial Home School was abolished by Congress, the school was put under the Board of Children's Guardians, and the power of appointing the Board of Guardians was given to the District Commissioners. A priori this would seem to be a move in the right direction and probably in the long run it will prove so, but its immediate consequences were apparently not foreseen by the Congressmen who sponsored it.

The District Commissioners, though by no means helpful in getting the truth before the public, had seemed sympathetic to the point of view of the Board of Children's Guardians; in fact, in March 1923, Commissioner Cuno H. Rudolph claimed that the policies of the board had the commissioners' full support. As soon, however, as they received the power of appointment of the Guardians, they interpreted it as a mandate from Congress to request the resignation of the members. Five members, Mrs. Thomas Carter, Mrs. Gilbert Grosvenor, Mrs. Thomas R. Marshall, Mrs. Walter S. Ufford, and Dr. William A. Warfield, refused to accede to the request until the commissioners promised that they would not disturb the members of the staff and that they would continue with the policy of family home care for children.

What is a promise in politics? Two vacancies on the Board of Guardians were immediately filled with former members of the Industrial Home Board and Mrs. West, the head of the staff, was notified that " a change was desired." When people interested in the work of the board offered to help get one of the best known welfare workers of the country to come to take up Mrs. West's work, the offer was refused. After Mrs. West's post had been vacant for two months, the board recommended for appointment a young law student whose sole experience in social work had been a few months as a Juvenile Court probation officer.

The latest plans announced by the present board include the sale of the old Industrial Home School. They have announced that they want two receiving homes in the city, one for Negro and one for white children; they also want to enlarge the present equipment for institutional care of the Negro children and finally they want a new institution for the white children. They have in mind a site about twenty-five miles from Washington. Although it is asserted that only children not able to profit by care in family homes would be sent to those institutions, there seems to have been no careful study or calculation to determine just what children now under the care of the board would be chosen to fill up the institutions. In the board's plan for a new institution, it seems to be assumed that at least one-third of these children will require permanent institutional care, because unfitted for family life.

Here would seem to be a place where the experience of Massachusetts in child placement might profitably be brought to bear via Mr. Coolidge. If something of that sort is not done, we suggest a name for the board more descriptive of the real object of interest of this official body.

N. R. D.

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EDUCATION

Internal Changes in Central Europe

TRAVELERS returning from Europe agree in one thing only: It is not the Europe of former times. This residuum of opinion is obvious enough to be left unexpressed were it not brought to our attention through persistent repetition. And small wonder: Even a rapid swing around the old tourist circuit leaves the traveler not only with a sense of violent disruption of ante-bellum conditions, but also with the impression that the end is not yet; that the spirit of change evoked a decade ago by violence is now so familiar that it remains as a habit.

Dissatisfaction with that which is has characterized the history of education in most of Europe since the World War. By the short cut of revolution many crooked ways have been made straight; new possibilities have been opened, especially for the lower classes. But revolutionary reforms have a way of not staying put, so that confusion and reorganization must be counted as among the probable results. Russia which has already become the classic illustration of a revolution is a case in point. The privileges of the czarist regime were naturally abolished; they had not been any too popular among students anyway, as the number of students that went abroad to study testifies. The effort to popularize educational institutions is a well known part of the Bolshevist policy, a policy based on the twofold principle of elevating the masses intellectually and imbuing them with communism. Unabashed at the hugeness of this problem, the government established elementary schools everywhere, and provided for the education of the more gifted of the lower classes in the secondary schools and universities as well. Whatever tolerance the Bolsheviki showed was most manifest toward educators and students. But the economic foundation of Bolshevism could not support the edifice of the theorists; certainly not when famine descended. Although the state has been able to continue the subvention of a few favored schools, many have been abandoned and teachers have often been left to their fate. Needless to say, the support of the state has been directed to those of the proper political persuasion. Tolerance is a difficult virtue at best, doubly difficult in the pinch of hard times.

Another natural and interesting result is that learning for learning's sake has taken second place, interest being chiefly manifested in those branches of science which yield immediate and tangible results. Even lectures on Marxian socialism are no longer so absorbing as are the best methods of obtaining fuel, food, clothing, transportation, and the other necessities for restoring a shattered industrial life. It is hard to keep a balance when necessity is so pressing. It was reported from Moscow last year that of the 50,000 students in institutions of higher learning, 10,000 only were able to provide for themselves; a similar number were kept alive by the state; the rest were adrift or dependent on foreign aid. Russian students have always been notoriously poor, but their plight must be indescribable when they have no homes but the streets and have to resort to every sort of shift to get something to eat.

The ambitious program which the German republican government sought to inaugurate has suffered from a lack of funds. Recent reforms have been in the direction of more attention to the individual pupil. Statisticians reckon that there will be as many in the schools in 1926 as there were in 1914, but famine conditions may interfere with this estimate. Children are no longer taken in promptly on coming of school age, but are sometimes kept waiting for months. Classes are getting larger, and yet sectioning them is out of the question. The housing problem, with which the whole country is afflicted, bears directly on the schools, leaving some schools in outgrown or outworn quarters while new buildings are abandoned for lack of funds. Holidays have more than once been prolonged because of lack of fuel.

THE tale of woe is as long as the investigator's patience, for no matter which way he turns he is met with conditions which seem intolerable. They are perhaps not more depressing than those in other phases of German life. But they are particularly demoralizing. One must know the German people, must understand how proud they are of their schools to appreciate the effect all this has on them.

Aside from the misery, there are other developments which are sure to bear fruit in later days. Student life is essentially changed. A few years ago the self-supporting student was a rarity. Now he is the rule, for not many people can afford to pay for the higher education of their children. It is estimated that 50 per cent of the Berlin students spend eight hours a day earning their living, another 20 per cent four hours a day. The boy who goes on in the face of present-day conditions must be in dead earnest about his academic career, and certainly there is less swank and swagger about university life now than in the old days. Then again there is the social side to all this. The self-supporting student has not quite established his status in society yet. Even if he is accepted by his own kind, he is not at all welcome among the laborers. The latter are not greatly impressed by the sacrifices which the student obviously makes, nor by his ambition to be ready to lead his country when the time comes; they see only that he is a non-producer, or if he works, a competitor who does not cooperate with organized labor. It may be that as more students come from the working class the friction will pass. So far this has not happened.

Not all the students in Central Europe are reactionary, but those that are seem to make more noise than the others. The malcontents naturally cavil at what they deem a proletarian government in the republics. In their minds many cross currents are confused just here. Socialists and Communists are lumped without distinction as radicals, and Internationalism and Semitism seem identical. The prom-

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inence of the Jews in the German government has been a thorn in the flesh of the Nationalists, not the least fiery of whom are to be found in the universities. Political murders, such as that of Rathenau, will remain rare, but the feeling against the Jews runs high enough for expressions of it to come to the surface often.

Last year there developed a serious strike among the students at Prague. The German element in that city is anxious to maintain this, the oldest of the German universities, a German institution, and guards it jealously from encroachments by the Czechs. Some of the students seem to think that this time, however, the boring was from within. The election of a Jewish rector by the faculty led to a protest on the part of the German Nationalists in the student body. When the other students returned in the fall they found that this group had picketed the buildings. Fights followed, and the police had to interfere. Although the faculty suspended lectures in the hope that the thing would soon blow over, it dragged on for two weeks and got into the national parliament. The strikers contented themselves with this and with the prospect that future appointments to the rectorate would be submitted to the student body for approval. In Vienna the strikers demanded not only that they should never have a Jewish rector, but also that the number of Jews in either faculty or student body should not exceed 10 per cent. In Bucharest the situation became so grave that the Roumanian government had to close the university for the rest of the semester. In Poland, at the University of Cracow, the demonstrators went so far as to bomb the house of the rector when he would not favor limiting the number of Jews.

The extent to which school matters have become entangled with politics is a startling aspect of the general situation. A calm and philosophical attitude among either those studying or those directing study, is hardly to be expected any more. For five years now the Reichstag has been unable to decide the nature of the standard common school; the reason is that the problem, nominally religious, is really political, and no one of the parties has sufficient support to put its plan through. Even such a matter as the text books will not down. The authorities in Germany have announced more than once that the old royalistic history texts were being removed from the schools, only to be confronted with the reproach later that they were still there. The earliest change that may be expected now is on December 1, 1925, when the ministry of the interior will decide which competitor has won the prize that has been offered for the best history of Germany from the French Revolution to the World War. To change the texts would seem to be an easy matter, but it is really not so simple. Educational reforms in Germany in the last few years have not only had the opposition of the naturally conservative, but in addition have been held back by the antagonism of many teachers to the government behind the reforms.

AND yet in the face of many discouraging factors German education still looks forward, builds its plans, and counts on their eventual execution. One finds a desire to keep the standards high and preserve Germany's old-time prominence in the educational life of the world. German universities, like our own, have been crowded since the war. The suggestion of excluding foreign students has consequently had many advocates, since it is a popular belief that Germany would be better off in her poverty if she did not have any outsiders on her hands. But some foresighted people have raised a voice in defence of the foreign student. He is not exactly to be confused with the greedy parasite who because of his favorable exchange moves to Germany to provide himself with what he cannot afford at home. The student will more probably get a taste of the spiritual advantages of Germany, and learn to know the Germans as they want to be known. He will give a favorable account upon returning to his native heath. He should therefore be encouraged, should be met halfway. I might add that he is met more than halfway if he comes from a part of the world so important commercially as South America.

Russia is also a country too important to be neglected. Of late the number of Russians in Germany has swelled so tremendously that it is now asserted that Berlin is the largest Russian city outside of Russia. Russian books fill the shops of Berlin. To meet the educational needs of these people there has been founded in Berlin what amounts to a sort of university, a Russian Scientific Institute, financially assisted by the German government and manned for the most part by a Russian faculty.

GERMANY'S neighbors on the north are writing their accounts on the other side of the ledger. Denmark and Sweden have contributed a great deal to that new development of German popular education, the folk high schools, which still remains the greatest single educational achievement of republican Germany. The chances of Norway's influencing Germany are greater now than usual. Although this country suffered heavily from the submarine and was generally supposed not to be a sympathizer with the German cause in the war, the study of German was not interrupted and lectures on German subjects were given regularly in Christiania, not infrequently by speakers from Germany. When the French went into the Ruhr last January, the student assembly at Christiania sent the French authorities resolutions condemning the invasion. This spiritual bond is now recalled with appreciation. Germans studying in Christiania make comparisons which are most flattering to Norwegian student life. They also speak with respect of the Norwegian Ph. D., and the defence of the thesis, which, not the cut-and-dried affair it is back home, is a real ordeal in which the whole community takes an interest. I am not sure, but I think the Norwegian organization of the student body, known as the "samfund," may have inspired the formation of the Deutsche Studentschaft. Certainly the "samfund" is worth emulating. Among its features is a forum composed of alumni as well as students, which devotes hours—sometimes half the night—to the discussion of questions of public welfare. Its influence is inestimable, and both state and church heed its decisions.

A certain tendency to democratization has shown itself in German universities. The hierarchy of professors was essentially modified by a decree of the Prussian ministry not long since which changed the seven grades of faculty rank to four, Ordinarius, Extraordinarius, Honorar-Professor, and Privatdozent. The full professors no longer have a monopoly of graduating candidates, and the senate, hitherto exclusively their body, now contains representatives of the other ranks. Since this body chooses the rector, this election is thus made the choice of the whole teaching force. A similar chance is given to the rank and file when it comes

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to filling a vacant professorship. Interesting is the provision for joint committees of the faculty and students for any occasion that may arise.

On the heels of these innovations came another in the matter of entrance requirements for the universities. It is now allowable for a person to enter without the usual certification provided he has the equivalent of the necessary preparation—maturity and ability of independent thought. This does not mean that the bars have been ruthlessly torn down. The student may not make application himself; his case must be brought to the attention of the minister of education by some educated and responsible person who knows the candidate well. Prospective students will be carefully sifted by examination and inspection. If they are not acceptable there is no end of red tape that can be invoked to discourage those of an overweening ambition. The change is at least interesting as evidence that the intention is active to make the educational institutions of the country available for all. Another earnest of this spirit is the remodeling of the Oberlyceum in such a way that the girls now have the same advantages as the boys. How much this has been desired, how long and urgently it has been advocated, is a matter best known to those faithful champions of democracy, the leaders of the woman's movement.

And so it has been with these reforms generally. Viewed from abroad, they give rise to nothing short of wonder. Where does the real incentive come from? In a country so disrupted, with a government so unstable, what is the inspiration to progress? I do not pretend to answer the question. I only know that the best elements in Germany, including its thinkers and spiritual leaders, have never lost faith in the destiny and high calling of their country.

EUROPE is in a state of change. There will be other permutations and combinations until the thing is right. When will that be? Probably on doomsday. For there is a growing conviction (even in America) that normalcy bears a resemblance to a will-o'-the-wisp. It lies in human nature to follow apparitions in the dark, and it behooves its leaders to have patience with it. A college president, fresh from viewing the European imbroglio, asked his student body the question, "Can men learn?" developing a theme that has worried the teachers of humanity since the dawn of consciousness—human incorrigibility. There is no harm in raising the question from time to time. Whether it is answered in the negative or the affirmative depends on whether one is a pessimist or an optimist. The real pedagogue has to be the latter, for the education of the human race is maddeningly slow, so slow that it is measured in geological eons, not in years.

H. W. PUCKETT

Greenwich Joins the World

GREENWICH is not a typical New England town, though it has a respectable historic background dating from 1640, and many of its residents have claim to remote Connecticut ancestry. But the town, because of its many attractions, has been invaded by outlanders, from the forty-eight states and from thirty foreign countries. From states like Illinois and California come men with ideas for the benefit of the body politic, and from overseas come new and enlarged ideals: for these reasons, it will be seen that Greenwich readily lends itself as a laboratory of social experiment.

Greenwich celebrated "patriotism day" in national education week with a departure both in form and in substance from the usual Fourth of July oratory. A committee of fifty had the program of the week in charge, with Mrs. Charles D. Lanier, Kentucky born and the only woman member of the school board, in charge. Each special day was in charge of a special committee, which was given free scope to arrange its own program. Though the program of each day was worthy of comment, this report has to do with one only—Patriotism Day.

Patriotism Day offered a long-wished-for opportunity for dramatic expression of national sentiment and aspiration, latent in the community; an opportunity to invest measures making for peace with some of the dazzle and brilliancy of war. When the plan was broached, the program fairly made itself, so enthusiastic was the support given to the conception of the greater patriotism.

The first event of the day was an hour in the schools set apart for a musical program, with singing of "America" and national airs of other countries, selected with reference to local racial sympathies. Italy, Czechoslovakia and Poland, as majority nations, contributed tuneful melody; but the minority countries too had songs of rare charm. Each school was visited by members of the committee, who shared in the ceremonies.

The main event was held in Havemeyer Hall which was filled to its capacity. After the singing of America by the audience, came the address, Bridging the Atlantic, delivered with eloquence and rare understanding by Professor Sarka B. Hrbkova, manager of the Czechoslovak Bureau of the Foreign Language Information Service. Professor Hrbkova was formerly head of the department of Slavic Languages in the University of Nebraska and, during the war, chairman of the Women's Committee of the Nebraska Division of the Council of National Defence. Though born in that state, she has pride in the unmixed Slavic-Bohemian blood in her veins for at least 400 years back, quite equal to that of Americans descended from the founders of our commonwealth.

She told, with striking illustrations, how she believed we can best "bridge the Atlantic." Bringing with him health, (our immigration laws keep out all who are physically unfit), a background of old culture, talents in the arts and music, and a great willingness to do the heavy work of the country, we should take care not to let the immigrant feel that because he does not know English, he knows nothing. Let us not crush the foreigner's individuality, his many gifts; let us not bleach out all of the color he brings from the other side into the monotone of a mechanical existence. Let us thank heaven he is different.

Dramatic numbers followed: Rosemary Hall students, under the skilled direction of Mr. Markoe, presented a series of American episodes, historic incidents symbolizing the Virtues: Columbus, *Faith;* Putnam Called from the Plow, *Readiness;* John Jay signing the Treaty with Great Britain, *Conviction;* Crossing the Plains, *Courage;* America's Gift to Europe, *Idealism;* and seven others all admirably staged.

After three American pictures came an Italian episode, presented by Italian-born citizens: United Italy, Garibaldi and the Italian States, rich in color and setting. More

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American incidents were followed by a Polish episode. William O'Brien, principal of the Glenville School, introduced a charming group of young girls in the picturesque costumes worn by their mothers when they landed at Ellis Island. Mary Musor recited the address President Wilson made to the Polish delegates when he arrived in Paris, and Polish folk songs were sung by all.

After the final Rosemary series, came the Czechoslovak episode: A group of young men and women in national costume were accompanied by one of their number as Uncle Sam, the acknowledged father of the young republic, represented by a little girl, who sang America in the native tongue. The Sokol Gymnastic Orchestra played spirited incidental music and gave zest to the intricate and captivating folk dances.

The Rev. Daniel Bella, pastor of the Czechoslovak Church in East Portchester, a part of Greenwich, and many of his parishioners gave whole-hearted aid in enlisting the interest of other foreign-born groups. The town is fortunate in having a man of his character and personality as director of Americanization.

The announcement of a Prize Essay Contest, open to all schools, completed the program. The prizes offered are for: best short summary of treaties between the United States and foreign countries; best narrative of a peaceful episode in American history; best account of the humanitarian activities of the League of Nations; best story of one of the new European states established by the Versailles Treaty. Winners will receive five-dollar gold pieces for the first three, a year's subscription to the magazine Our World with a copy of League or War by Irving Fisher. It is proposed to make another community affair of the prize awards.

Edwin C. Arnold, superintendent of schools, says that in scholarship no distinction is to be made between the children of different nationalities; and further that of the eighty-three high-school graduates now in college, thirty-three are of foreign-born parentage. It is needless to multiply cases, Greenwich only furnishes an example of what is happening the country over. Within the past week, the annual election of American Rhodes Scholars, in thirty-two states, to the University of Oxford, gave the names of a fair quota strongly suggesting foreign ancestry in the objectional sense given it by the bitter-enders, now so critical of aliens. And the number found in the list of 417 candidates admitted to the bar by the state board of law examiners in New York just published must be positively alarming to those of the alien complex.

In just what way shall we distinguish the "Old Stock"? From what period do they date? Webster's International Dictionary defines the Nordic as "A blond dolichocephalic (long-headed) race, one of the tallest in the world, found chiefly in Scandinavia, Scotland and Northern England." How many of us can qualify as members? Huguenots, Dutch, Irish, English of the southern half, these of our earlier period of settlement all must go by the board!

Greenwich has been facing a situation, not a theory; and our concern is to emphasize the mutual advantages derived from a frank and free understanding between native and foreign-born Americans.

MARIAN JOHONNOT SCOTT

Drawings by Esther Andrews

House painters have almost complete use of their minds

Real Wages

RECENTLY, under pressure from certain young friends who have been requesting advice about what to do with their lives, I have been driven to books dealing with vocational guidance.

I have read analyses of the qualifications requisite to success in banking, journalism, the legal profession, engineering, etc. I have studied the carefully prepared chartings of the ways that must be followed in seeking success along these or other lines, the dangerous shoals to be avoided, and the promises of treasure, great or small as the case may be, for those who have made a successful voyage.

In all of the books which I have read, however, there has been no mention of the opportunities for miscellaneous thinking that are afforded while following the various routes to success.

Always it is a recital of what must be done, with no mention of privileges and opportunities for mental amusement coincident with, but falling outside of the contract with success. Perhaps this fact is due to a superstition fostered by the old adage that two things cannot be done well at the same time. Convinced, however, of the falsity of this proposition, and interested in the problem of real wages, which is only remotely connected with money payments and price levels, I have been making inquiry in regard to what workers have the opportunity of thinking about while performing the tasks for which they are paid.

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I find that house painters, even on delicate jobs of interior decorating, have almost complete use of their minds to take such mental excursions as they choose; that street car motormen must be almost completely occupied by the work at hand while on the job, and that unpleasant recollections of accidents or near-accidents follow them home to torment them; that hand candy workers can often amuse themselves at work by building castles in the air; and that machine tenders, as a general rule, must be almost exclusively concerned with the performances of "the damned things."

The inquiry, "What are you thinking about?" tends to be regarded with suspicion by professional people, particularly lawyers, many of whom have court procedure complexes. So far I have not been able to discover what one is privileged to think about while being a successful "realtor," for example, but it seems that doctors eat, sleep, and breathe in terms of prescriptions and operations.

Day Dreams while Being a Successful Plumber

My inquiry, only fragmentary to date, is of no consequence whatsoever in itself, but it seems to me to suggest a new chapter in books on vocational guidance—a chapter with some such title as Opportunities for Day Dreams while Being a Successful Plumber. There is, of course, no warrant for believing that the opportunities, if available, will be utilized; but they should be made known to such imaginative persons as seek a chance to satisfy their material wants for something slightly less than the complete surrender of their minds and bodies.

DEXTER M. KEEZER

The Control of New Schools

THE function of education in all primitive groups and societies was the perpetuation of the folkways, that is, the past. The wisdom of the past had indubitably brought the group through all vicissitudes of fortune to its present estate; and this same wisdom was most to be depended upon to provide the same protection through all the future. The primitive group leader was, so far as he was conscious of his processes, a firm believer in the doctrine held by Patrick Henry: He had no lamp save the light of experience, no guide save the hand of the past. This wisdom of the past was organized into traditions and dramatized in the ceremonials and customs of the folkways; and it became a real part of the habit and conscience of every child of the group through those intimate processes of living which no such child ever escapes.

The function of schooling in the modern world is not dissimilar. In any static society, the schools perpetuate the accepted wisdom, of course. Schools are sometimes set up for the specific purpose of sifting the wheat of wisdom from the chaff of pseudo-science, for the protection of "immature minds." Some of the medieval universities grew up for this same purpose: they protected orthodoxy against all manner of insidious heresies. This is the inescapable logic of education in any static social order.

But democracy has not escaped from this subordination of the present to the past. Fear of the future seems to have become a permanent characteristic of the human mind. The primitive man feared the unknown world about him. Even the Greek people filled the Libyan desert with flying dragons, and the dark north with Hyperborean terrors. We moderns have no longer any geographical unknown within which to locate the dragons and terrors that can give us the necessary thrills of fear. The future is about the only unknown left to us. We still make good use of it. Even the National Education Association balks at adventuring too far afield into the future. At its Des Moines meeting, in 1921, the National Council proposed for ratification, as a part of a fundamental declaration of educational principles, the doctrine that "every child must be taught early in life to subordinate himself, willingly, to a wisdom older and more inclusive than his own."

That is to say, schooling, even in our so-called democracy, has come to be a means, as Bertrand Russell says, of instilling "certain mental habits," such as "obedience and discipline, ruthlessness in the struggle for worldly success, contempt toward opposing groups, and an unquestioning credulity, a passive acceptance of the teacher's wisdom," into the growing characters of the children.

Few can be optimistic enough to believe that public education can long be anything other than this. The control of our public schools lodges not in the hands of the educators, but in the grip of the maintainers of the current folkways. Our school boards are composed of businessmen, lawyers, labor leaders, women, politicians: an average cross-section of the American public. This average public wants "the best we can get in the way of schools"; but it wants and will have "no new-fangled nonsense." The heresy hunt against history text books, which has been on in many parts of the country, notably in New York City and on the Pacific Coast, for the past two or three years, is indicative of what the politically minded public wants of its schools: it wants "normalcy," the "safe and sane"; in the words of one of our famous presidents, it wants to be "right"!

But the New School, wanting nothing of this subordination of mind to a ready-made knowledge, faces the difficult problem of its own ultimate freedom to do its new work in its own ways. The New School wants results which are quite inconsistent with mere "schooling," and it must therefore find some means of control more intelligent and more tolerant of ideas than any average cross-section of the American public is likely to be. The New School wants (to paraphrase Bertrand Russell further) not obedience and discipline, but independence and impulse; not ruthlessness, but justice in thought; not contempt, but the ability to understand; not acquiescence in the opinions of others, but understanding of those opinions and appreciation, or opposition to them, as judgment may determine. Above all, instead of credulity and a fatuous optimism, the New School attempts to stimulate constructive doubt, the "love of mental

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adventure, the sense of worlds to conquer by enterprise and boldness in thought."

Of course, this is just the intellectual and educational aspect of democracy. Democracy is, and ever must be, a civic adventure. If it is to be real, no divinely ordained monarch, no arrogantly superior ruling class may be permitted to take from the common man the opportunity, the adventure, the responsibility of sharing in the task of shaping his own political destiny; nor may he be permitted to deny himself those same opportunities and responsibilities through inculcated fears. The habit, especially the habit of mind, that can make democracy real has scarcely become possible to the average man even at this late date. He has been schooled all through the last (allegedly democratic) century in habits of action and feeling that have made him inhospitable to the attitudes of mind and the intellectual freedom demanded by a real democracy. The evils of our present age are not evils of democracy, as many superficial critics of democracy allege: they are the survivals of ancient social, moral and intellectual orders which we have, more or less intentionally, protected and preserved, partly because we have not understood that political democracy cannot exist unless we have intellectual freedom; and partly because we have enjoyed the "privileges" which inhere in those survivals. So on the one hand we have been able, at need, to defend those survivals on the ground that they "are inseparable from democracy"; and on the other hand, we have been able, at need, to denounce democracy because it "has produced such deplorable results." Between these sophisms the "average man" has taken refuge in existent institutions: he believes in schools, even though the results disappoint him; he believes in the church, even though he never attends; he believes in political parties, even though he never has an inkling of what goes on "behind the scenes," and finds himself betrayed over and over, by politicians.

There is no escape from this subordination of mankind to its own institutions, of whatever sort, save through the complete liberation of the critical intelligence. Revolutions have, at times, seemed to release a nation or a group; but the release has most often proved an illusion. For the results of a revolution can be conserved only if a more appreciative and critical intelligence arises to establish the differences between the new forms and the older spirit, and to evaluate the new as means toward that more desirable future which the revolution promised. Few revolutions have produced such intelligence.

The New School can exist and maintain itself as a *new* school only in so far as it can find such an appreciative and critical intelligence to be its ultimate defense, its final judge and jury. How much of this exists in public opinion, today? If we may judge by the number of New Schools that are projected, the amount of critical intelligence in the American community is very great; but if we must judge by the number of such schools that survive the enthusiasms of the first few months or years, the amount is deplorably small.

John Huss was burned by order of the authorities, and the peasants brought thatch from their own roofs to help kindle the fires; though they could not understand it, those peasants were burning up their own hopes and denying the fortunes of unborn generations. We can see and understand this now, five centuries after the event! But folly of that sort did not end with the death of John Huss: still are we tearing the thatch off our own houses to kindle fires around the disturbing ideas of our times—ideas that some future century will recognize as fundamental to human happiness and progress.

The New School, whether elementary, secondary, collegiate or university, that is a center of adventuresome ideas, has a precarious existence today. It stands on the frontiers: its leaders and teachers are pioneers; it faces the future and the unknown. It must do these things not on some distant geographical frontier, remote from the old social controls, but in the midst of the city, or in the populous country-side, under the eyes of suspicious passers-by, and not far removed from the headquarters of those organizations and officials who have made it their duty to preserve intact the folkways of their own groups, and to impose those folkways as the ultimate standards of truth and right upon the whole people. The methods of this attempt to control the schools have changed since the day when Huss was burned. We have become far more refined. We do not kill people, today: we demolish them with a shrug of the shoulders; we cut off their source of supplies and starve them into being good! Few survive: hundreds of New Schools have been organized; few remain. The degeneration by which some of these achieve respectability and become worthy of support is usually slow and imperceptible; sometimes, it is even unsuspected by those in charge; but in the long run it is unmistakable! The buildings remain as of old, or even with a new coat of paint; the teachers may be practically the same; the curriculum may be printed in identical terms: but something has departed. This which formerly was a center of adventuresome child-life and joyous freedom has become a "school": the glory has departed!

Democracy waits for the coming of the New School! But the New School waits upon the emergence in every community of groups of men and women who are not afraid of ideas, either for themselves or for their children; and who are willing to bear their share of the burden of that task by which, little by little, the prejudicial and narrow folkway attitudes of the past will be displaced and the open mind and the tolerant mood of the true scientist will become the characteristic of our world.

No one need suppose that this great result will be easily achieved; or, for that matter, that it will ever be fully achieved. This generation will not win all the battles of freedom, releasing all future (including the "younger") generations from all responsibilities. "The task of humanity," said Royce, in a notable passage, "to-wit, the task of organizing here on earth a worthy social life, is in one sense a hopelessly complex one. . . . There are amongst us men, our rivalries, our selfish passions, our anarchical impulses, our blindness, our weak wills, our short and careful lives. These things all stand in the way of progress. For progress, for life, for spirituality, stand, as the best forces, our healthier social instincts, our courage, our endurance, and our insight. Civilization depends upon these, to-wit: healthy instinct, enduring courage and contemplative insight."

There is, perhaps, nothing easier in the world today than the organization of a "new school." Almost any sort of program can secure adherents and support. But the school that can stand contemplative insight; that can find enduring courage; and that can build upon, by means of and for the release of our healthiest social instincts: the development of such a school will be a real achievement.

J. K. H.

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INDUSTRY

Hops and Play in Oregon

THE Eola Ranch near Salem, Oregon, has contributed the beginning of a solution for the problem of the thousands of transient workers who drift from Southern California to Oregon, Washington and British Columbia and back again for seasonal work in various grain and fruit harvests and who are a cause for increasing concern.

Families and unattached girls and men hike, beat their way on the railroad, or "auto tramp" their way from a winter spent in the orange, lemon and grape fruit region near the Mexican border, up through the spring work in asparagus, tomatoes and other vegetables to the summer employment in cherries, berries, hops and prunes, and complete their fall occupation by a stay in the apple orchards or packing sheds.

In many cases they go back to the citrous fruit in December. Others find winter work in road construction, timber camps, lumber mills or other industrial plants. Some live through the winter on the earnings of the summer. And still others, too thriftless to spend wisely the good wages they received through the harvest season, or overburdened by expense from illness or misfortune, become dependent on the public welfare bureau or other public or private philanthropies in the cities where they congregate during the slack seasons between harvests.

The Eola Ranch, belonging to the E. Clemons Horst Company, has about half of its thousand acres planted to hops and is said to be the largest hop ranch in the world. A delay in harvesting the delicate hop burr after the time of maturity or beyond the time of the first frost is likely to cost the producer his profit on the investment, where the labor alone costs two hundred dollars per acre for the year. One ranch in the neighborhood of Eola abandoned the picking of one hundred acres this year because of delay in obtaining sufficient workers until after the frost had blackened the delicate vines.

The experiment carried through on the Eola Ranch in September 1923 succeeded in holding more than a thousand workers on the job until the end of the harvest, in contrast to the experience of 1922, when the force dropped from one thousand to three hundred at the end of the first ten days. This continuous service of the large number of workers reduced the period of harvest from a month to twenty-two days, saved a perishable crop and cut the cost of harvesting by thousands of dollars.

H. N. Ord, the manager of the ranch, attributes the unparalleled success of his harvest to the recreation and health department which was his unique experiment in the history of handling a group of transient workers on the Pacific Coast. He writes:

> You may cite us as an example of having thoroughly proved that community work pays and is an excellent insurance. We are going to follow it up stronger next season.

Our recreation and service division which we consider a permanent part of our organization, was divided into four parts:

First, an executive who organized all recreation, planned entertainments, ran down and displayed all local talents and was in general charge of all camps and camp life, including the supervision of all other recreation workers. This executive was J. C. Henderson, recreation director of the Portland Park Bureau. To him belongs the success of the enterprise.

Second, the women welfare workers in each camp whose duties consisted of consultations with the women workers, observations in the camp and in the fields and recommendation bearing on the same to Mr. Henderson.

Third, children's nurseries, one in each camp, with well selected playgrounds equipped with sand piles, slides, swings, ladders and volleyball, where experts in children's work looked after the little people whose mothers were in the fields. Free milk was served daily to all the children, numbering 25 to 60 in each camp.

Fourth, the Daily Boxful, a little newspaper which kept up the interest and pride of our workers and got anything that Mr. Henderson started or that we ourselves wished to get to the workers.

We eliminated trouble makers from the ranch by not hiring anyone through our Portland or country representatives who seemed likely to be trouble makers. We prevented such people by checking up on car numbers which were furnished to us by our representatives and by local growers and officials.

The health service furnished first aid at the welfare headquarters in each camp, for oak and hop poison, burns, cuts and bruises, and supplied calls from once a day to many times on patients suffering from dysentery or other disorders incident to unripe fruit and hastily prepared food. Suggestions in the daily paper about the choice of food induced many to choose a wholesome combination. The grocery stores on the ranch received fresh supplies daily and milk was delivered from an accredited dairy.

Out of the seventeen injured during the harvest, only one man lost any time from work. Cases needing a physician or dentist were either taken to the neighboring town in a car belonging to the welfare workers or medical attendance was brought to them. Many of the cases of illness in other years which had broken the morale of the working staff were among the children who were either taken to the fields in the hot sun or left in camp to take care of themselves and eat whatever they might find. Much of this trouble was prevented this year by the day nurseries which cared for the children too young to help their parents. This year the nurseries cared for some tiny babies on pallets of straw and for older children who could enjoy the games, stories and simple playground apparatus.

THE program of evening recreation around the camp fires proved so attractive to the hundreds of workers who assembled night after night that one of the two dance halls built by the management had too little patronage to justify the cost of an orchestra. The other dance hall operated

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only five nights a week. These two dance halls were placed well inside the ranch inclosure, away from the highway. The unseen hand of the United States prohibition director from Portland and constant vigilance of the county sheriff and the two deputies on the ranch practically eliminated the practice of bootlegging.

A printed circular sent out weeks before the season began, to the addresses of former employes and to auto camps and other assembling places of migrant workers, had asked them to bring musical instruments and theatrical make-up and to be prepared to use any gifts they might possess for entertaining. Among those who came were musicians, story tellers, dramatic readers, tumblers, hula dancers and one slack rope walker. One family that had been on the vaudeville stage coached the members of their camp and put on a seven act vaudeville for the entertainment of another camp. The star performers frequently were asked to repeat an act in another camp.

Once each week prizes were awarded for amateur proficiency. A watch was given the winner in a broad grin contest among the boys. Knives, eversharp pencils, neck ornaments or gloves added incentive for young and old. A beauty contest enlivened conversation for a week ahead, and stirred an interest which would have made it difficult to drag any of the young girls from the ranch. The winner was given the title of "Miss Eola." She received an award of a 42-piece dinner set offered by a merchant in the neighboring town of Independence, and with her court of honor, composed of all the contestants, she was entertained at a local theatre and an after-theatre supper by the Independence Chamber of Commerce.

Conversation in the fields dealt with the performance of the night before and plans for coming events, which crowded out the usual arguments with check bosses and scraps with each other.

MR. HENDERSON found when he laid his plans that many recreation leaders objected to going to a hop yard because of the general reputation through the Northwest of bad moral conditions in all hop yards. But as one of the men said after the season, "It hasn't seemed like a hop yard." Many of the workers applied for jobs on the Eola Ranch for next season. Martha Randall, superintendent of the women's protective division of the Portland police, and her assistant, Mrs. Elizabeth Murad, expressed their hearty approval of the welfare program and particularly the fact that preference in employment was given to families rather than to unattached men and girls. Miss Randall said:

> I foresee a general improvement in morals and predict a lessening of expense to the state for institutional care in contrast to the large numbers of cases usually brought to us in Portland within a few months after the period of hop and fruit harvests.

The head of the Portland Public Welfare Bureau field service expressed her amazement that many of the pay checks drawn by the workers for the three weeks' period amounted to $200, more to $100, and that there were few for less than $50, whereas the workers whom she sent into most of the fields came back disgruntled, saying they had lost money through sickness or moving from one ranch to another, and that they came back with less money than they went out with.

Managers of other ranches are considering putting on similar programs for next season. T. A. Livesley, one of the large growers of hops, near Salem, has announced that he will have a recreation and health department next year. The Hood River Apple Growers' Association, up the Columbia River from Portland, has appointed a committee to investigate means of meeting their needs along this line and will endeavor to cooperate with the Willamette Valley growers of summer fruits and hops in the matter of exchanging information about competent workers. Residents of the Puyallup Valley, the berry center of western and of the Yakima and Wenatchee Valleys of central Washington and of the grain section of eastern Washington, Oregon and northern Idaho are considering the possibility of cooperating with the growers of the Willamettee and the Hood River Valleys in an employment exchange for migrant workers.

LOUISE F. SHIELDS

Pity the Men

EXCEPT for the National Woman's Party, there is almost complete unanimity of opinion in America to-day that women and children need special legislative protection against the hazards of industry. Now that most states have laws providing compensation for losses resulting from industrial accidents, there is almost equal unanimity that men are able to take care of themselves. For the moment, the tide is running against "government in business"; the ancient conception of the state as the potential tyrant as against the conception of the state as an administrative agency for the performance of necessary public services has emerged from its late partial eclipse; the war and its reactions effected a glandular rejuvenation of individualism and *laissez faire*. Labor, business and important groups of feminists unite in the cry: Let us alone that we may work out our own salvation! This *may* be sound doctrine in so far as business, women and children are concerned; but as for the male industrial workers a reasonable doubt is raised by the current record of industrial accidents. "Present indications," according to a report emanating from the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the United States Department of Labor, "point to an exceptionally large number of accidents for the year 1923, in some states more than have ever before been reported."

There are states is which the scope of the workmen's compensation and accident reporting laws is limited to so-called hazardous employments, excluding mercantile establishments, professional employments and clerical occupations; one-half of the states exempt the small employers, that is, those having less than a stipulated number of employes; *all* of the states except New Jersey exclude agricultural and domestic service. Agriculture is the industry par excellence of the legislatively unhampered male. Yet the next-to-the-highest fatality rate per thousand 300-day workers, as estimated by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, is found in one of the occupations classified as Agriculture, Forestry and Animal Husbandry. Although the data upon which the estimate is based include only employes, and not self-employed farmers, they show how the wind blows. The highest fatality rate occurs among the electrical workers in light and power utilities; lumbermen and woodchoppers come second; then follow policemen and sheriffs; then coal miners.

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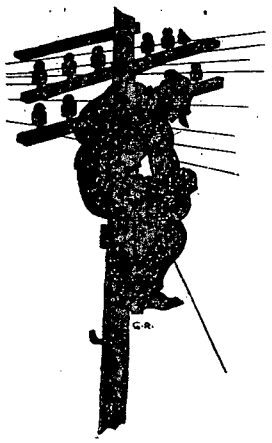


The four most perilous occupations, as indicated by tables published by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics. These figures are the estimated annual fatality rates per 1000 300-day workers.

1. Electric light and power..... 5.73
2. Lumbermen, woodchoppers, etc. 5.00
3. Policemen, sheriffs, etc..... 4.10
4. Coal mining 4.08

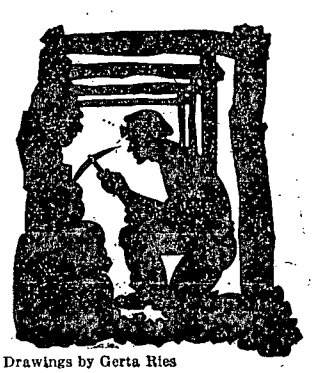
Next in order come transportation by water (all occupations except longshoremen), with a rate of 4.00; metal mining, 3.66; work about warehouses, 2.84; steam railroads, 2.25; road and street transportation and oil and gas production, each 2.05.

Most of the men in these groups come under the scope of compensation laws; but even with this measure of protection, their fatality rate remains shockingly high. After these many years of agitation, education and legislation, the old fear of the potential tyranny of the state still so hampers the thorough-going development of public agencies for the compensation and prevention of industrial accidents, that not even the number of accidents or of industrial fatalities is accurately known. We still depend upon estimates, which for fatalities range from 12,500 to 35,000 annually, and for non-fatal injuries run as high as 2,432,186. Here is liberty with death.

The situation in the bituminous coal industry is particularly interesting—and perplexing. Here is an industry in which the large majority of the men are united in a powerful organization, an organization of great public and political influence and large financial resources. In the days of its infancy, supported by public sentiment in its revolt against mining disasters, it succeeded in procuring the legislative enactment of certain of our earliest safety codes. Through its influence, primarily, the federal government created in the Bureau of Mines as efficient an accident prevention service as any in the country. Yet mining disasters continue to occur. In the latest years for which comparable statistics are available, the fatality rate per thousand coal miners employed in the United States has been a little more than three times as great as that in the United Kingdom. "More disturbing than the appallingly greater fatality rate," says Dr. Meeker, secretary of Pennsylvania's Department of Labor and Industry, "is the fact that the relative fatality rate, though fluctuating rather widely, shows on the whole a decided increase." The Committee on Safety in Bituminous Coal Mining, which reported to the United States Coal Commission, found it impossible to obtain general statistics on non-fatal injuries in the bituminous coal industry, because there is no uniformity among the states in reporting such injuries. In Pennsylvania alone, however, according to John B. Andrews, secretary of the American Association for Labor Legislation, the bituminous coal industry loses approximately 1,165,900 days' service yearly on account of about 28,800 serious non-fatal accidents. During the ten years to 1922 the United States Bureau of Mines reports that 18,243 men were killed at the bituminous coal mines of the country—an average of 1,824 each year, an average fatality rate of 4.30 per 1,000 employed. In an address before the Association for Labor Legislation in December, Mr. Andrews argued convincingly that two-thirds of these fatal and serious accidents could be prevented by the universal adoption of safety methods already in successful operation at some mines in this country and in Great Britain.

Why are they not adopted? It is customary among social reformers to charge responsibility almost exclusively to the mine owners and operators. Certainly as owners and operators they are chargeable with a preponderant share of responsibility. But the miners themselves are also largely responsible. Through the growing strength of their union organization, they have asserted an increasing measure of control over the government and policies of the industry. They have developed great ability in extending their organization and in the conduct of strikes; in recent years, they have brought to wage conferences with the operators their own special economists and statisticians; they have an expensive, if not technically distinguished publicity staff for the spread of their own occasional propaganda. But unlike the railway shop crafts, for example, they have not developed a staff of consulting engineers. In view of the immense toll of preventable deaths and serious accidents in the mines, their failure to have a clear and modern program of accident prevention, worked out and administered by competent engineers, lays their organization open to a measure of substantial criticism.

But long experience has conclusively demonstrated that in the matter of industrial hazards, whether in the coal or other industries, neither the employers, nor the workers, nor the private insurance companies, nor the states acting separately can adequately meet the problem. The Committee on Safety in Bituminous Coal Mining stresses the importance of "nation-wide uniformity" in safety legislation. With the apology for advocating any further intrusion of government into business, for whatever purpose, which current fashion demands, the committee concludes: "While many of us oppose so-called government paternalism, yet we believe it is the duty of the government to secure safety of life by wisely directed legislation. If the compulsion by the



Drawings by Gerta Ries

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government to use life-saving devices, such as the air-brake and automatic coupler on railroads, is proper, we believe the coal industry should prepare to universally adopt these safety suggestions."

Following this recommendation, the American Association for Labor Legislation has formulated a concrete program of accident prevention, which while it specifically relates to the coal industry only, embodies a principle of far wider applicability.

The first requisite, the association believes, is the adoption of uniform legal minimum standards of safety. This can be accomplished, in its judgment, only by reenforcing and giving national scope to the authority of the Bureau of Mines. Voluntary action by the operators and miners, action by the individual states it "hails with special enthusiasm"; but supporting federal legislation is essential to the abolition of preventable accidents. The Bureau of Mines has worked out an admirable set of standards; the federal experts have put up-to-date regulations into effect in the eighty coal mines owned by the United States Government. But the insufficiency of the force of example is illustrated by the fact that only 18 per cent of the explosives used in the mines of the country last year were rated as "permissible" by the bureau. More than a quarter-million dollars has been spent by the government in developing and equipping, near Pittsburgh, an experimental mine where the Bureau of Mines conducts elaborate tests of methods of accident prevention. One of its outstanding accomplishments is the discovery of the cause and nature of coal dust explosions and the development of methods for their limitation and control. Upon investigation, the association has been unable to discover "more than three substantial coal companies in America that are using this simple, reasonably inexpensive, and effective safeguard." The agents of the Bureau of Mines may enter coal mines by permission of the owners only; its recommendations are recommendations only. The Committee on Safety in Bituminous Coal Mines reporting to the United States Coal Commission recommends that Congress should give the Bureau of Mines the *right* of entry for the purpose of investigating mine accidents, with the further right to make public its findings. The Association for Labor Legislation would have Congress empower the Bureau to fix and *enforce* minimum safety standards.

This is the most important of its four recommendations. It goes to the root not only of the accident problem, but of all other social problems, such as child labor, involved in the conduct of basic industries like coal. Like the United States Coal Commission, the Association for Labor Legislation sees no hope for the effective control of preventable accidents in the mines except through the declaration by Congress that coal is an interstate public utility. The opposition to such a declaration comes not only from the coal industry itself, but also from other industries that fear it would be the first step in the development of a public policy that might in due season be extended to them. The courts would probably find that any legislation based upon the assumption that bituminous coal is "affected with a public use" was unconstitutional. This constitutional barrier is the rock against which all attempts to bring the coal industry under federal control bump and stall. If the Bureau of Mines were granted compulsory powers to fix and enforce minimum safety standards, those powers, too, would probably be declared unconstitutional.

The question therefore arises as to whether industrial workers can be protected from preventable industrial accidents without such a constitutional amendment as is now being proposed as the only effective means of establishing minimum national standards for the protection of children in industry. Industrial hazards are not a monopoly of the coal industry. They fall into the category of an endemic disease; in a certain sense they partake of the nature of contagious diseases. Unless we can devise a way of bringing them under the control of minimum national safety standards, we shall continue to remain in the helpless position of those who at the recurrence of each new industrial disaster can do nothing but wring their hands and cry: Pity the men!

R. W. B.

From Thistles

MR. WELLS'S Outline of History shows that the results of war are not all things of suffering and blood, inflated currencies and unemployment, of the newly impoverished and the newly rich. Even the Great War with its 9,000,000 dead and its immeasurable misery broke the ground for new lines of peaceful progress.

Of these, the Women's Bureau, instituted as a war service, has now completed its fifth year. Its duties as officially outlined are "to formulate standards and policies which shall promote the welfare of wage-earning women, improve their working conditions, increase their efficiency, and advance their opportunities for profitable employment." The practical interpretation of this during the war was to fit the thousands of women, who were suddenly called into industry, to their work, and also to so adjust industry that the new work which women were called on to do would be possible for them. With the coming of peace, the bureau's duties are quite differently interpreted even under the official formula.

The most striking feature of its report, which has just been issued, is the increasing cooperation established with all sorts of unofficial bodies throughout the country, and the effort to create an active public opinion as an asset for its program.

The most effective activity of the bureau during the past years was the Women's Industrial Conference, called by the bureau for a three-day session in Washington, to place before the women of the country an outline of the extensive and steadily increasing problems attending the employment of women in industry and to indicate some of the methods and standards which are being adopted in order to meet these problems. Representatives were invited from all women's organizations interested in the subject of industry which include women in their membership. As a result of this conference an understanding has been developed between different groups in the community which formerly seemed to have no common interests, and there has arisen among them a common purpose and a willingness to aid in each other's work. The Survey printed a report of this conference February 15, 1923. The resolution adopted at the close of the conference contains the possibility of considerable enlargement on the original program: "to provide real opportunity for women workers through schooling, a free choice of occupation, training for that occupation, adequate wages without prejudice because of sex, and safe working conditions."

Since the establishment of the bureau, groups all over

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the country have learned to ask it to do special pieces of work; investigations, compilations and the gathering together of exhibits of which they felt a special need. The bureau has become a well known and extremely valuable source of information, and the public demands upon it have so increased that the work of its research department has been steadily growing. During the past year it made a special study of the minimum wage laws, partly resulting from the decision of the Court on the minimum wage in the District of Columbia; it has sent the result of its investigations along various lines to those organizations and individuals who are interested in it through a monthly newsletter; and it has digested and made plain to even the most ordinary mind information from the Census of Manufactures regarding the increased employment of women in new lines of industry.

One of its most interesting activities has been to attack the very sore problem of domestic service. At the request of the Domestic Efficiency Association of Baltimore, which was formed to put domestic service on a better and more standardized basis and to try to get at the causes of the high labor turnover, which is the impersonal way of asking why cooks leave home, it examined and analyzed the records which the association had gathered covering nearly 3,000 cases. It is particularly valuable to have this long-neglected and backward occupation brought in line with the other work through which women earn their livings in manufacturing establishments, shops and offices, and to get government assistance on the problem of whether we must "do our own work" or not.

Not only special associations, but different states are sending in requests to the bureau for studies of conditions affecting women in industry. Among these are Illinois, North Carolina and Oklahoma. A general request has come for a special study of the health conditions of the women employed in telephone exchanges.

All of these investigations naturally look toward the passing and enforcement of law to carry out their findings. It is an old saying that no law can be enforced without the consent of the people. In a democracy it cannot be enforced without their active cooperation, nor established—theoretically at least—without their backing. The laws covering employment are usually state laws and vary greatly. But the administration of labor laws as they affect the conditions of women's employment presents the problem of conditions distinctly different from those under which other labor laws can be enforced. The bureau is therefore recommending a separate bureau in each state for the administration of these laws.

Each bureau will have a qualified woman in charge directly responsible to the executive or agency administering the labor laws of the state, and one very interesting section of this fifth annual report concerns the requirements necessary for a woman competent to head such a bureau.

More and more the women's organizations throughout the states are pushing these laws and trying, sometimes successfully and sometimes unsuccessfully, to establish certain standards in legislation. Whether they succeed or not in getting their special laws passed, there is no doubt of the educational value of their work. Those who back the bills are well aware of this fact. Year after year they introduce their bills, with little hope of their becoming law, because they know that no law can be successfully enacted or enforced if it has not the support of public opinion and enthusiasm for the principles on which the law is based. The report says:

> In a number of states the legislation introduced for the benefit of women wage earners has met with unfortunate opposition from those who have felt that any legislation dealing solely with women was an unjust discrimination against the freedom and equality of that sex. This theory led to the attempt in several states to substitute the word "persons" for "women" in the bills introduced. . . . In effect this method was an attack on the whole theory of special legislation for women, a theory which is indorsed and actively supported by almost every important organization of working women and of women who are interested in improving industrial conditions. . . .

The report says that after its five years of investigation the bureau has come to the inevitable conclusion that the question of women's earnings is of fundamental importance. Again and again it shows the intimate relation between their earnings and their standards of living, of health and of the family and community life, which depends upon these standards.

The bureau itself suffers from low wages; a limit of $1,800 a year being set as the maximum salary for its agents. Such agents must be trained in the special work which they are to do in the public service and can usually command far better salaries outside.

The Women's Bureau, established as a war service which was intended to result in increased production, has become one of our great educational institutions actively engaged in training the people of the country not only in the conditions under which women work, but in building up ideals of what industry can be expected to do for them and gathering the facts which may make the realization of these ideals possible.

M. B. B.

PUBLIC SCHOOL boards seem able to estimate the time it will take a child of a given age to assimilate an idea of a given magnitude—there are so many days allowed in the curriculum for fractions—for the geography of Africa—but no such schedules have been formulated for the time it takes an average adult legislator to assimilate an idea. Again and again laws—and pretty good laws too—come before our law makers. Again and again they go over the lessons implied in them; again and again they fail to learn! In his message to the legislature, Governor Smith of New York presents the same lessons which the Assembly has struggled with in vain during previous sessions. Like a wise schoolmaster, he points out what has been done; how the Labor Department has been built up; how the Industrial Safety Campaign has been launched; and the operation of the Workmen's Compensation Laws speeded up. And then he holds again before the legislature the lessons they have failed in before—that the first two weeks after an industrial accident, for which at present no compensation is allowed, may be the time when it is needed most; that $8.65 will not support a widow for a week nor $7.21 a dependent mother; that it is not for the best interests of society that women and minors be permitted to work more than eight hours a day, nor for a wage less than sufficient to enable them to maintain themselves in health, and to supply the necessities of life. How far in the difficult study of framing laws for the benefit of people who work will the New York Legislature get in this session? Would home study classes, each man in his own community, help at all?

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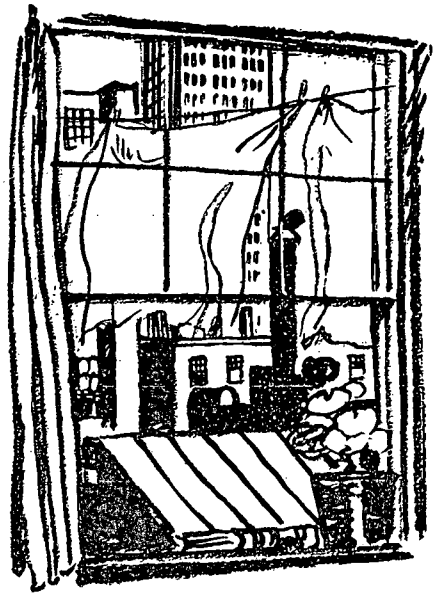
The Color of a Great City

"I was given for the first year or two of my stay here to wandering . . . The thing that interested me then as now about New York . . . was the sharp, and at the same time immense, contrast it showed between the dull and the shrewd, the strong and the weak, the rich and the poor, the wise and the ignorant . . . ."

From The Color of a Great City, by Theodore Dreiser, illustrated by C. B. Falls. Boni and Liveright. 287 pp. Price $3.50 postpaid of The Survey.



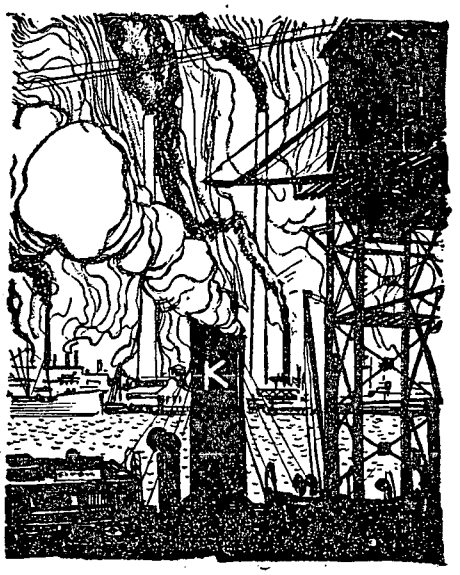
BEING POOR

THE PUSHCART MAN

THE MEN IN THE SNOW

THE MICHAEL J. POWERS ASSOCIATION

AN OIL REFINERY



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BOOK REVIEWS

A Pattern of Peace?

THE Nobel committee has decided, so word comes from Christiania, to award no peace prize this year. There is no Wilson, no Roosevelt to speak a flaming word for peace. It has now become the business, not of prophets, but of organizations and American editors (cf. Mr. Bok). As peace efforts have become democratized they have lost in clarity. The general effect is similar to the confusion and excitement of an old-fashioned three-ring circus.

But reading even a chance series of books such as those listed here is encouraging in that it does reveal a pattern in current thinking—not a picture of a world without war, but of a world at peace where there is energy and desire to work for real civilization and human improvement. The world faced such an opportunity in 1914 and preferred to waste millions of lives and billions of treasure. But the many pieces that go to make the whole of human knowledge, centering in what we call the sciences of economics, education, and psychology and touching the intricate detailed difficulties of daily living in various nations, still offer themselves for synthesis.

We Americans are inclined to think of European conditions as chargeable simply and directly to Machiavellian diplomats. Yet certain definite trends, broader than individual influences, have been in evidence during the last seventy-five years and are now running themselves to the bitter end. Any two or three of these books together would give the reader a good minimum background for the recognition of these trends and so for the formation of opinion on conditions and events in Europe today out of which might grow some conception of our possible relationship with Europe. No single clue—either economic, psychological, or educational—is sufficient. Modern war requires all the variety of human effort; combating it requires the same amazing variety. We need not despair because of the great number of peace plans; we may take heart from them and we must take thought.

To be frank without being cynical and to be able to strike an optimistic note in concluding a 600-page review of Europe's turnings and twistings since 1918 are accomplishments in themselves. But it is difficult to read Mr. Gibbon's Europe since 1918 and not leave it in a cynical frame of mind. "When there is a bone, one dog less does not mean the end of the fight," is apt to stick in the mind. The Treaty of Versailles, according to the author, wrote into a covenant among nations unbridled greed and revenge. He quotes the late Senator Knox, "As it is, the treaty indicts those who drew it up. It is a crime against civilization." Yet the Treaty of Versailles is only the natural culmination of national policies for almost a century: an ordinary secret treaty sanctified. In 1917 we were praising France and now we are blaming her. But France is only playing openly and with Gallic logic a game that all Europe has been playing for the past hundred years. England and France, Mr. Gibbons writes, were in accord until the beginning of 1921, when England shifted from a political to an economic attitude toward the reparations problem. England's fear had become an economic one. France's remained a political one. The League of Nations, Mr. Gibbons believes, should find its principal work in this field of international economics. The great causes of war in our generation are "inequality in trade, colonization, and investment opportunities." When the League of Nations or some similar body, he believes, is prepared to discuss such subjects and establish an adequate settlement the causes of war will have disappeared.

It is no longer true that books giving detailed political information are necessarily dull. E. Alexander Powell's latest book, The Struggle for Power in Moslem Asia, is a political Arabian Night's Entertainment with empires as stakes and nations as players, from Asia Minor, the cross roads of three continents, to Bagdad; from Jerusalem to Mecca and to Hadramaut, the land of incense whence came Balkis, Queen of Sheba; from Mocha (how many readers know where it is?) across the land of the Wahabi, the fanatic Puritans of the Moslem world, to the Peacock Throne of Persia. "Persia, since the dawn of history, has been the breakwater of the West, upon which the successive waves of nomadic emigration, rolling westward out of Asia, have dashed themselves all down the centuries." Now the successive waves of empire builders out of the industrial West are dashing against this same breakwater. Asia Minor is being strewn with the wreckage of this modern invasion. German hopes crumbled with the fortunes of war. The Allied armies have left Constantinople, the Greeks have been driven out of Smyrna, the French have returned Cilicia to the Turk and it is not improbable that they will leave Syria, the British are finding Mesopotamia a heavy burden and have withdrawn from their sphere of influence in Persia, Russian plans were swept away by their own revolution.

Mr. Powell's account is both fascinating and instructive. He presents facts which may well temper our knowledge of international relations, but at best his book is but one man's view. It might be well, in case Americans are tempted to adopt a better-than-thou attitude in the face of these facts, for us to keep in mind the practice of the "open door" policy in the Mesopotamian affair and America's own plea for oil.

A Study of International Government and The League of Nations Today fit together. One is a student's impartial

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THE STRUGGLE FOR POWER IN MOSLEM ASIA, *by Alexander Powell. Century Co. 389 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*
EUROPE SINCE 1918, *by Herbert Adams Gibbons. Century Co. 622 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*
A STUDY OF INTERNATIONAL GOVERNMENT, *by Jessie Wallace Hughan. T. Y. Crowell Co. 401 pp. Price $2.75 postpaid of The Survey.*
THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS TODAY, *by Roth Williams. Henry Holt & Co. 223 pp. Price $2.25 postpaid of The Survey.*
CHRIST OR MARS? *by Will Irwin. D. Appleton & Co. 188 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*
GERMANY'S CAPACITY TO PAY, *by H. G. Moulton and C. D. McGuire. McGraw-Hill Book Co. 384 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*
OUT OF WORK, *by G. D. H. Cole. Alfred A. Knopf Co. 96 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*
THE LABOUR PARTY'S AIM, *by Seven Members of the Labour Party. George Allen & Unwin, Ldt. 96 pp. Price $.36 postpaid of The Survey.*

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survey of past experiments and the other "has been shaped from the flux of day-to-day politics." Dr. Hughan has taken her material from a careful reading of the records of the past. Mr. Williams has avoided books and has studied the actual work of the League of Nations, the material published by the Information Section of the League Secretariat, and conditions in Europe at first hand. He believes in the League, not as a finished product, but as an imperfect organization that will gain loyalty from peoples as they work with it. Dr. Hughan makes no plea for or against the present League, but traces the growth of the idea of international government. In the last chapter, The Task Before Us, she states her belief that the basic problems of international government lie in the field of social psychology. In our attitude toward the particular question of war there must be a transformation of international ethics and the force upon which we must rely is that of education in the wider sense. This ethical approach she shares with Mr. Williams and Mr. Irwin. Mr. Williams seems to think we must look to a general change of mood. Just as we no longer fight religious wars, patriotism too must be humanized and civilized. This "evolution of patriotism has very largely occurred as regards to relations of Great Britain and the United States, and still more so as regards the relations of Sweden, Norway, and Denmark."

Christ or Mars by Will Irwin is, in the jacket writer's terminology, a "challenge." "It can be done" is the repeated phrase. Mr. Irwin places the responsibility for the future in the hands of the Church, at least as far as war is concerned. "She (the Church) has taught her young sons and daughters that good citizenship is a Christian duty; she must teach them now that perfect citizenship implies tolerance, that suspicion and generalized hatred are part of the old Adam in man."

INTO the pattern fit smaller pieces, nation by nation: unemployment in England, reparations in Germany, Fascism in Italy. We see how after the World War the lack of knowledge or consideration for international economics, education and human psychology leaves the old irritations festering in each country. Mr. Beals in Rome or Death traces the growth of Fascism from the roving bands of discharged soldiers attacking German and Slav schools and churches in the annexed territory to the rise of a political group. Has Fascism become a revolt against the imperialism of England and France in the Mediterranean? Its slogan is "The Mediterranean to the Mediterranean peoples." As one reads this book, two statements made by Mr. Gibbons come to mind: "Italy stands in the same relation to the outside world in which Germany and Japan stand"; "There would have been no World War had not Germany felt herself deprived of 'her place in the sun.'" Italy, a Mediterranean power, is bottled up with England at Gibraltar and the Suez and squeezed tightly behind her own land frontiers by the colonial acquisitions in the Mediterranean of France and England. Both the speeches of Mussolini and the writings of men like D'Annunzio indicate plainly that Italy wants more than what France and England leave and in Fascism she is entering into her new faith in the "right of the strong." Where is this part mystical, part sun-worship Fascism going to lead her? Mr. Beals points out that the center of world exploitation today is the Orient. The Mediterranean is regaining its old commercial importance and Italy is the key country. For Italy it would be a tremendous economic advantage to be rid of the hampering restraints exercised by England and France. Is force as represented by Fascism Italy's only way of expansion? It will be remembered that it was Italy that in the first hopeful meetings of the Assembly of the League of Nations brought forward a suggestion for some kind of international control of raw materials. The small nations were back of it, but the great powers gave it scant consideration. Is Mr. Beals right in his guess as to the wider meaning of Fascism? In view of our experience in 1914, we certainly have no right to ignore any warning.

Germany's Capacity to Pay is a study of the reparations problem by Harold G. Moulton and Constantine E. McGuire of the Institute of Economics at Washington. Is Germany all deceit and revenge and France all sacrifice and martyrdom or vice versa? Unless we wish to be ruled by a cliché—Germany's guilt, France's greed, British perfidy—we must have an economic knowledge of the facts. This publication of the Institute of Economics is of great value because it gives just this without bias.

G. D. H. Cole's Out of Work is a short and clear analysis of the unemployment situation and its international implications in England from the point of view of a Guild Socialist. The present depression he traces mainly to two sets of causes: "first the effects of the war and the unjust and outrageous peace settlement; and secondly the effects of capitalist accumulation and the mal-distribution of income in the community." The Labour Party's Aims, by Seven Members of the Labour Party, is a reexamination of aims and principles of a socialist commonwealth. In view of the fact that the Labour Party is sitting on the Opposition benches in the British Parliament and may be called to administer the government before this review is published, this is no longer to be dismissed as a utopian dream. The anonymous authors are not contented with "back to Marx" or "back to Fabianism." They look at the future in the light of conditions today, and their stand is to be reckoned with not only at home but in relation to imperial policy and England's part in Europe.

There is discouragement aplenty in these scattered accounts of Europe today: in the meanness of the forces at work, in the ironic contrast between programs for a peaceful world and actual rivalries and bitternesses. Yet as the picture rounds itself out one can see with almost historic clearness, behind the welter, the progressive forces of civilization working toward a rational organization of society.

ALPHA BUSE

A Street-Map of Social Work

WHAT IS PROFESSIONAL SOCIAL WORK? *by L. A. Halbert. Published by the author, Kansas City, Mo. 149 pp. Price* $1.50 *postpaid of The Survey.*

SO recent is the emergence of a group consciousness on the part of those who call themselves professional social workers that it is not strange that the literature of social work as a unit phenomenon is still scanty. So long as all social work was roughly equivalent to what is now known as family case work, or to "charities and corrections," Warner's American Charities and its successors served well enough the purpose of interpreting this phenomenon to its practitioners and to the public, and on the side of popular understanding these texts were reinforced in charming fashion

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by such books as How the Other Half Lives. But since social work has come to mean a huge and heterogeneous family of more or less related efforts for the betterment of all sorts of folks and groups of folks, it has become increasingly difficult either to provide the young worker with a synthesis which would guide his or her personal thinking and put the individual job into relation with the whole movement, or to interpret the phenomenon for the outside who sees policewomen, Salvation Army lassies and scoutmasters going about their several jobs, reads pathetic cases in the newspaper, buys a Christmas seal if it is shoved under his nose, and has no idea in the world what it is all about.

Mr. Halbert has tackled a hard job that needed to be done. It is no light task to answer the question What is Professional Social Work? The little book which he has produced, and which has already found its way to many social workers' bookshelves, is an interesting attempt at an answer. It is, of course, far from a final answer—even in the light of social work as we knew it today. In range of subject-matter it sets a new standard for handbooks of social work: its categories—family, medical, economic, psychiatric, correctional and spiritual social work, and social work for art—are ingeniously designed to cover much more completely than has been done before the diverse forms of professional effort now in existence. In developing the theory and scope of each of these kinds of social work Mr. Halbert has naturally been handicapped by the modest space allowance of a working handbook, but only in the section on psychiatric social work has this brevity of treatment been coupled with a serious error of interpretation. He should not have made it appear that psychiatry was concerned primarily with *intellectual* equipment and processes.

The attempt here is not to dig under the surface to sociological or psychological bedrock, but rather to draw a rough sketch of social work as it is today (with a hint or two of ways in which it may develop tomorrow) so that the pieces of the puzzle-picture may be fitted together. Mr. Halbert has made a street-map of the community of effort in which social workers find themselves. Some of the streets will be straightened out and widened when a master-planner happens along, but in the meantime a standard guide is a handy thing to have in one's pocket.

G. S.

T. B.

THE TUBERCULOSIS WORKER, *by Philip P. Jacobs, Ph.D. Williams and Wilkins Co. 314 pp. Price $3.30 postpaid of The Survey.*

WHAT Social Diagnosis did for social case work and The Settlement Horizon for the settlements The Tuberculosis Worker accomplishes for the outstanding part of the health movement. Mr. Jacobs is one of the few who has helped to guide the anti-tuberculosis crusade from its early beginnings less than twenty years ago through its amazing growth to the present. His book, the fruition of that experience, is divided into two main parts, the first dealing with methods of tuberculosis work and the second with programs. Its primary aim is the discussion of technique and not of tuberculosis as a disease. The control of the white plague is presented as a local community problem; this has served to give concreteness and point to nearly every chapter.

In some respects it is unfortunate that the reach of the book may be restricted by its title. There are eight or ten chapters which should prove of keen interest to social workers generally, such as those dealing with newspaper publicity, the spoken word and survey and statistical methods. It is to be hoped that Mr. Jacobs will reprint these chapters in compact form under a more intriguing title. Other chapters are of special interest to the public health worker. Those outlining tuberculosis programs for rural and urban communities and for states are among the most valuable contributions in the book. The general presentation is simple, trenchant and vigorous. The format is a little cumbersome; aside from that the book is a model in make-up.

Of general interest is the attitude of the tuberculosis worker towards financial federations, as Mr. Jacobs sets it forth. With their unique methods of raising funds through the Christmas seal tuberculosis associations are in a better position to bargain than are most social agencies. While stating that the national organization is not opposed to community chests as such, Dr. Jacobs enumerates three conditions which should guide a local society in entering into an agreement with a federation: preservation of the Christmas seal idea, proper recognition for the claims of the state and national associations, and the integrity of the work of the local organizations.

Mr. Jacobs points out the desirability of an amalgamation of various national health organizations. He predicts, however, that when such a merger comes the educational emphasis will have to be placed on concrete objectives such as cancer-control and the prevention of tuberculosis.

PAUL L. BENJAMIN

THE RUN OF THE SHELVES

MANUAL OF INFORMATION ON CITY PLANNING AND ZONING, *by Theodora Kimball. Harvard University Press. 188 pp. Price $3.50 postpaid of The Survey.*
TOWNS AND TOWN-PLANNING, ANCIENT AND MODERN, *by T. H. Hughes and E. A. C. Lamborn. Oxford University Press. 156 pp. Price $5.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

HERE are the bones and flesh of the city-planning idea. At one extreme, Miss Kimball's highly useful bibliography with its 2000 references. At the other, a charming, genial book which takes its key from the remark of the authors in their preface that "men, and books, need warmth as well as light." Miss Kimball, of course, has long since done pioneer service in listing and classifying source material in this field. The present volume, issued under the auspices of the National Conference on City Planning, carries on to a new pitch of achievement the work begun with her first list in 1915. Beside a generous bibliography ranging over regional, rural and national planning as well as the older divisions of the field, she has provided a terse summary of the problem and several satellite lists which will be of special service to the every-day reader and student—lists, for example, of selected references for a city-planning commission, of periodicals carrying matter relating to these topics, and of typical American city-plan reports. Obviously the bibliography does not attempt to be exhaustive; only the briefest mention is made of the literature in foreign languages. It is not always easy for the layman to follow Miss Kimball in her assignment of references to one classification rather than another, but a generous subject index is provided. The book from Oxford is made for people who would shy off violently at a bibliography, and by people who very evidently enjoyed themselves in the making. Handsomely

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printed and lavishly illustrated, it presents a resumé of town-planning history and an outline of present practice, both quite free of technical details or terminology. It stresses, naturally, the "city beautiful" aspect of planning, but not to the exclusion of more sober and utilitarian considerations. It is sufficiently debonair to turn now and then to De la Mare and other poets; it is sufficiently graphic to fascinate the map-minded reader.

ADOLESCENT INTERESTS, A STUDY OF THE SEXUAL INTERESTS AND KNOWLEDGE OF YOUNG WOMEN, *by F. I. Davenport, Ph.D. Archives of Psychology No. 66. G. E. Stechert and Co. 62 pp. Price $1.25 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE DATA of which the study is made consists of 880 spontaneous questions asked in writing by a group of 150 young women students, 17 to 23 years of age, in a city training school for teachers, prior to a course in sex instruction which they had requested. The questions covered such a variety of aspects of sex interest as the structure and function of sex organs of both sexes, venereal diseases, prostitution, menstruation, and kindred topics. They were classified and studied with a view to finding, if possible, the nature and extent of their knowledge, and on what particular aspects of that knowledge their minds dwelt. Many conclusions are drawn, such as: that the questions reveal an unfortunate degree of ignorance in regard to elementary facts of sex physiology; that the interest shown in child production was markedly negative in trend, there being nearly as many questions on prevention of child-bearing as on all other phases of child-bearing combined; and that the interest revealed was largely on the childhood level of curiosity which had remained unsatisfied and had come to occupy a conspicuous place in the sexual attention of the questioners. There was revealed a smaller amount of positive interest in marriage either as it actually exists or as an ideal, but a marked tendency to consider marriage from the standpoint of physical hygiene, and of being free from venereal disease. All this is taken at random by the reviewer from a much larger group of conclusions, all interesting and important. The author seems to show some concern that the sexual interests, as revealed by the questions, were directed mainly toward primary sex feelings and manifestations, and to a much smaller degree toward interests of love, marriage, and motherhood. But it would seem the most natural thing to expect the girls to ask questions about those matters on which a certain social taboo has prevented their getting exact information. On the other hand, the questions of courtship or of child welfare and kindred topics they would feel perfectly able to answer for themselves without help. It is highly desirable that such studies should be made for the benefit of educators, social workers, and parents who ought to have a far clearer idea than they have at present of what is going on in the sex imagination of young people in their charge. For this reason (if it is not discourteous to make an adverse criticism of so excellent an investigation) the reviewer would suggest that the writer might have spent somewhat more care in the clear presentation of the results.

ELEANOR ROWLAND WEMBRIDGE

FREEDOM AND THE COLLEGE, *by Alexander Meiklejohn. The Century Co. 231 pp. Price $1.75 postpaid of The Survey.*

HERE IS a collection of essays dedicated to them that "Goon on Pilgrimages" and introduced by their author as "attempts to define the teaching and the learning of Freedom." Nine speeches and papers, the earliest of which is his inaugural address delivered at Amherst eleven years ago, are included in the book, which, although its forcefully thought and expressed material is new only in book-form, has been eagerly awaited by a hungry minority of students and educators, who find in it encouragement on the pilgrimages they have undertaken. In the first essay, To Whom Are We Responsible, Mr. Meiklejohn states his belief in the existence of an absolute truth of which we have as yet only a fragmentary knowledge. He contends that the scholar and teacher must be judged principally by his relation to this truth. And this expression of belief in a unified external truth with which the book opens is the center from which the other essays, although all less abstruse, seem to radiate. His Baccalaureate Sermon which follows is simply a call to the class of 1923 to face the truth and live. He says: "I have no fear of your discouragement at what I have said. You do not dread the unending road. What I do fear for you is just that lethargy of spirit that cuts man's life in two, that lets our double nature fall apart." So throughout the book, if he discusses professionalism in college athletics or the development to come in the next hundred years, or the essentially intellectual quality necessary to a liberal college, even when he speaks of city improvements or praises a beloved leader, it is as though he shouted, "Know the truth and the truth shall make you free." But he does not dogmatize about that truth, or even pretend to have found it. The changes in college curriculum and organization which he advocates are interestingly stated in his last essay. However, he does not seem to regard them as at all an ultimate pronouncement—as ends in themselves—but simply as the best means he can devise to equip his students to search actively themselves for the truth. And from this championship of a common impersonal cause the book derives its quality of high pilgrimage. J. A. P.

SOME NEWSPAPERS AND NEWSPAPER MEN, *by Oswald Garrison Villard. Alfred A. Knopf. 345 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE NEWSPAPER AND THE HISTORIAN, *by Lucy Maynard Salmon. Oxford University Press, American Branch. 566 pp. Price $7.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

MR. VILLARD shares passionately in the fortunes of the American press, and his trenchant portraits of newspapers and newspapermen reveal not only the personalities of his subjects but his own. The newspaper is for him either a protagonist or an antagonist in the struggle for moral progress into which he has thrown himself. He is both sharp-tongued and pontifical: "As a teacher of race hatred the New York Times is unsurpassed . . ." ". . . the narrow and mean-spirited Tribune, —which is a sort of decayed Henry Cabot Lodge among dailies, without such abilities as he possesses." "The truth is that, if the Bennetts, father and son, were short of some of the ordinary moralities, they were the most remarkable news men this country has ever produced." Were he less positive he might be a shade more convincing, but he would also be less provocative, and it is for its highly provocative criticism of the contemporary press that the book deserves wide reading. Very different in scope and temper is Professor Salmon's bulky treatise. She has already pioneered with distinction at Vassar in the use of newspaper files as an adjunct to the college study of history. Here she devotes the painstaking agglutinative technique of the historian to canvassing the strength and weakness of newspapers as historical source material. In the process she looks at the newspaper from all the familiar and some unfamiliar points of view, so that she succeeds in giving this every-day institution a fresh and full-rounded aspect. And she has assembled an amazing amount of newspaper lore. As to her own reaction to the sort of issue that fascinates Mr. Villard, it may be fair to quote a single sentence: "These . . . conditions are noted to suggest that the press shares with every other known human activity, collective or individual, the restraints inherent in human society, and probably to no greater or less a degree." If the historian of the future, as he thumbs down the faded columns of the papers of 1924, keeps one ear open for Professor Salmon's scholarly generalization and the other for Mr. Villard's biting analysis, he won't go far wrong. G. S.

FOLK FESTIVALS AND THE FOREIGN COMMUNITY, *by Dorothy Gladys Spicer. The Womans Press. 152 pp Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

TO THOSE to whom folk festival may imply a formal pageant, this modest book will open the door of a new and delightful entertainment, just as it will open many doors to the understanding of our foreign guests to whom we are too often lacking in hospitality. "The folk festival," says the author, "is a key to the heart of the foreigner. . . . It not only teaches the younger generation of American birth a love and respect for the customs and traditions of the parents, but develops an appreciation and knowledge of the essential qualities in the art, music and poetry from other lands." The first half of the book is a delightful introduction to the very real and colorful person who dwells behind the confused and lonesome mask of the foreign immigrant. The second half supplies in well

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thought-out detail the technique of the production of folk festivals, and includes four seasonal festivals that may be given in this country. It will be of interest not only to workers in foreign communities, to whom it is addressed, but also to recreation workers in American schools and summer camps who may through such festivals bring a richer culture to small one hundred per centers. Not of least importance is the full bibliography of sources for folk costumes, dances, songs and custom.

C. D.

THE ADMINISTRATION AND POLITICS OF TOKYO, *by Charles A. Beard. The Macmillan Co. 187 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

AMONG THE ASSETS of Tokyo before the earthquake was a newly organized Institute for Municipal Research and a group of well informed municipal administrators keenly alert for any help they could get in dealing with the city's confused political organization and sadly under-developed facilities. At the invitation of Viscount Goto, then mayor, Professor Beard spent the winter and spring of 1922-23 there, surveying the government of Tokyo and cooperating in an effort to broadcast better municipal thinking. The result of the survey is a brief, simple, plain-speaking handbook which presents the city's outstanding problems in the light of American and European experience—particularly in relation to the standards worked out by the New York Bureau of Municipal Research—and makes some well-considered suggestions as to betterment. Though its publication was suspended at the time of the earthquake, there proved to be an insistent demand from Tokyo for copies, and it was therefore issued while Professor Beard was again in Japan at Goto's invitation to give more immediate aid in the task of reconstruction. As an educational tool now being used to further the intelligent reconstruction of the city's life it is a notable addition to municipal literature; but aside from that it bears so directly on underlying problems in all great cities that it will be of wide interest here too. More than one American mayor and constable would read with profit the two or three pages which are devoted to a temperate discussion of the role of the police in controlling public expression of opinion.

G. S.

Peace Plan No. 1469

(*Continued from page 372*)

bership in five of the social welfare commissions or committees of the League, in one on economic reconstruction, and in one (Aaland Islands) which averted a war. American women serve as expert Assessors upon the Opium and Traffic in Women Commissions.

Two philanthropic agencies in the United States have between them pledged more than $400,000 to support either the work of the Epidemics Commission or the League inquiry into conditions of the traffic in women and children.

How can increasing cooperation between the United States and the organized world be secured?

The United States being already so far committed to united counsels with League-agencies for the common social welfare, all of which have some bearing upon the preservation of world peace, the question before us may take this form:

How can increasing cooperation between the United States and the organized world for the promotion of peace and security be assured, in forms acceptable to the people of the United States and hopefully practicable?

The United States can extend its present cooperation with the League's social welfare activities

Without any change in its present policy, already described, the United States Government could, first, show its willingness to cooperate similarly with the other humane and reconstructive agencies of the League. To four of these agencies that Government had already sent delegates with advisory powers. It could as properly accept invitations to accredit members with like powers to each one of the other welfare commissions. It has already received invitations from two of the latter.

It is, secondly, immediately practicable to extend the same kind of cooperation, whenever asked to do it, so as to include participation in the work of the commissions and technical committees of the Labor Organization. The record shows that such cooperation is already begun.

The single common purpose of all these committees is the collection and study of information, on which may be based subsequent recommendations for national legislation.

All conventions and resolutions, recommended by the first three congresses of the International Labor Organization, have already been laid before the Senate of the United States and, without objection, referred to the appropriate committee. No different procedure would have been followed if the United States were a member of the Labor Organization of the League.

An immediate step is adherence to the Permanent Court

A third immediately practicable step is the Senate's approval of the proposal that the United States adhere to the Permanent Court of International Justice for the reasons and under the conditions stated by Secretary Hughes and President Harding in February, 1923.

These three suggestions for increasing cooperation with the family of nations are in harmony with policies already adopted by our Government, and in the last case with a policy so old and well recognized that it may be called traditional.

They do not involve a question of membership in the League of Nations as now constituted, but it cannot be denied that they lead to the threshold of that question. Any further step toward cooperation must confront the problem of direct relations between the United States and the Assembly and Council of fifty-four nations in the League.*

In actual operation the League employs no force

The practical experience of the League during its first three and a half years of life has not only wrought out, in a group of precedents, the beginnings of what might be called the constitutional law of the League, but it has also shifted the emphasis in activities of the League and foreshadowed important modifications in its constitution, the Covenant.

At its birth the Covenant of the League bore, vaguely in Article X and more clearly in Article XVI, the impression of a general agreement to enforce and coerce. Both of those Articles suggest the action of a world-state which never existed and does not now exist. How far the present League is actually removed from functioning as such a State is sufficiently exhibited in its dealings with Lithuania and Poland over Vilna and their common boundary, and with Greece and Italy over Corfu.

Experience in the last three years has demonstrated probably insuperable difficulties in the way of fulfilling in all parts of the

* Fifty-seven States, including Germany, are members of the International Labor Organization of the League. There are about sixty-five independent States in the world.

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The Jury of the American Peace Award

"It is the unanimous hope of the Jury that the first fruit of the mutual counsel and cooperation among the nations which will result from the adoption of the plan selected will be a general prohibition of the manufacture and sale of all materials of war."

GENERAL JAMES GUTHRIE HARBORD, Illinois, now President of the Radio Corporation of America; Chief of Staff of the A. E. F. in France during the organizing period in 1917-18, and again in 1919. Chief of the American Military Mission to Armenia in 1919; Deputy Chief of Staff of the U. S. A. in 1921.

COLONEL EDWARD M. HOUSE, Texas, personal representative of Ex-President Wilson to the European governments in 1914-15-16; designated by President Wilson to represent the United States in the Supreme War Council at Versailles.

ELLEN FITZ PENDLETON, Massachusetts, President Wellesley College since 1911; member Council for International Federation of University Women; Chairman Committee on International Relations of American Association of University Women, Senator of United Chapter of Phi Beta Kappa.

ROSCOE POUND, formerly of Nebraska, now of Cambridge, Mass., Dean of the Harvard Law School since 1916; author of a number of works on law, Readings on Roman Law, Readings on the History and System of the Common Law, the Spirit of the Common Law, etc.

ELIHU ROOT, New York, Secretary of War in President McKinley's Cabinet and Secretary of State in President Roosevelt's Cabinet, winner of the Nobel Peace Prize for 1912; member of the Permanent Court of Arbitration at The Hague since 1910; member of the Commission of International Jurists which proposed the plan of the new permanent Court of International Justice, established in 1921; commissioner plenipotentiary for the United States in the International Conference on the Limitation of Armament at Washington in November, 1921.

WILLIAM ALLEN WHITE, Kansas, editor and novelist; an observer for the American Red Cross in France in 1917; delegate to the Russian Conference at Prinkipo in 1919.

BRAND WHITLOCK, Ohio, former Ambassador to Belgium; formerly Mayor of Toledo as an independent for four terms.

world the large promise of Article X in respect to either its letter or its spirit. No one now expects the League Council to try to summon armies and fleets, since it utterly failed to obtain even an international police force for the Vilna district.

Each Assembly of the League has witnessed vigorous efforts to interpret and modify Article X. In the Fourth Assembly an attempt to adopt an interpretation of that Article in essential agreement with the Senatorial reservation on the same subject in 1920 was blocked only by a small group of weak States like Persia and Panama, which evidently attributed to Article X a protective power that it possesses only on paper.

Such States, in possible fear of unfriendly neighbors, must decide whether the preservation of a form of words in the Covenant is more vital to their peace and security, and to the peace and security of the world, than the presence of the United States at the council table of the family of nations.

As to Article XVI, the Council of the League created a Blockade Commission which worked for two years to determine how the "economic weapon" of the League could be efficiently used and uniformly applied. The Commission failed to discover any obligatory procedure that weaker Powers would dare to accept. It was finally agreed that each State must decide for itself whether a breach of the Covenant has been committed.

The Second Assembly adopted a radically amended form of Article XVI from which was removed all reference to the possibility of employing military force, and in which the abandonment of uniform obligation was directly provided for. The British Government has since proposed to weaken the form of requirement still further.

Articles X and XVI, in their original forms, have therefore been practically condemned by the principal organs of the League and are today reduced to something like innocuous desuetude. The only kind of compulsion which nations can freely engage to apply to each other in the name of Peace is that which arises from conference, from moral judgment, from full publicity, and from the power of public opinion.

The leadership of the United States in the new world is obviously recognized by the League

Another significant development in the constitutional practice of the League is the unwillingness of the League Council to intervene in any American controversy, even though all states in the New World except three are members of the League.

This refusal became evident in the Panama-Costa Rica dispute in 1921 and in the quarrel between Chile, Peru and Bolivia, a quarrel which impelled the last two States to absent themselves from the Third Assembly, wherein a Chilean was chosen to preside.

Obviously the League intends to recognize the leadership of the United States in the New World precisely as the United States claims it. This is nothing less than the observance of an unwritten law limiting the powers and duties of the League Council, defined in Article XI of the Covenant, to questions that seem to threaten the peace of the Old World. When the United States is willing to bring the two halves of the world together for friendly consideration of common dangers, duties and needs, it will be possible to secure, if it is desired, closer cooperation between the League organizations and the Pan-American Union, already a potential regional league. It is conceivable that the family of nations may eventually clearly define certain powers and duties of relatively local significance which may be developed upon local associations or unions. But the world of business and finance is already unified. The

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worlds of scientific knowledge and humane effort are nearly so. Isolation of any kind is increasingly impossible, and world organization, already centralized, is no more likely to return to disconnected effort than the United States is likely to revert to the Calhoun theory of States Rights and Secession.

In actual operation, if not in original conception the League realizes the principle and the hopes of the Hague conferences

The operation of the League has therefore evolved a Council widely different from the body imagined by the makers of the Covenant. It can employ no force but that of persuasion and moral influence. Its only actual powers are to confer and advise, to create commissions, to exercise inquisitive, conciliative and arbitral functions, and to help elect judges of the Permanent Court.

In other words, the force of circumstances is gradually moving the League into position upon the foundations so well laid by the world's leaders between 1899 and 1907 in the great international councils of that period. The Assemblies of the League and the Congresses of the International Labor Organizations are successors to the Hague Conferences.

The Permanent Court has at least begun to realize the highest hope and purpose of the Second League Conference.

The Secretariat and the Labor Office have become Continuation Committees for the administrative work of the organized world, such as the Hague Conference lacked resources to create but would have rejoiced to see.

The Council, resolving loose and large theories into cleancut and modest practise, has been gradually reconciling the League, as an organized world, with the ideals of international interdependence, temporarily obscured since 1914 by the shadows of the Great War.

No one can deny that the organs of the League have brought to the service of the forces behind those ideals an efficiency, scope and variety of appeal that in 1914 would have seemed incredible.

It is common knowledge that public opinion and official policy in the United States have for a long time, without distinction of party, been favorable to international conferences for the common welfare, and to the establishment of conciliative, arbitral and judicial means for settling international disputes.

There is no reason to believe that the judgment and policy have been changed. Along these same lines the League is now plainly crystallizing, as has been shown, and at the touch of the United States the process can be expedited.

In no other way can the organized world, from which the United States cannot be economically and spiritually separated, belt the power of public opinion to the new machinery, devised for the pacific settlement of controversies between nations and standing always ready for use.

The United States should participate in the League's work under stated conditions

The United States Government should be authorized to propose cooperation with the League and participation in the work of its Assembly and Council under the following conditions and reservations:

I. The United States accepts the League of Nations as an instrument of mutual counsel but it will assume no obligation to interfere with political questions of policy or internal administration of any foreign state.

The United States will maintain the Monroe Doctrine

In uniting its efforts with those of other States for the preservation of peace and the promotion of the common welfare, the United States does not abandon its traditional attitude concerning American independence of the Old World and does not consent to submit its long established policy concerning questions regarded by it as purely American to the recommendation or decision of other Powers.

The United States proposes that moral judgment and public opinion be substituted for force

II. The United States will assume no obligations under Article X, in its present form in the Covenant, unless in any particular case Congress has authorized such action.

The United States will assume no obligations under Article XVI, in its present form in the Covenant or in its amended form as now proposed, unless in any particular case Congress has authorized such action.

The United States proposes that Articles X and XVI be either dropped altogether or so amended and changed as to eliminate any suggestion of a general agreement to use coercion for obtaining conformity to the pledges of the Covenant.

The United States will assume no obligations under the Versailles treaty except as Congress approves

III. The United States will accept no responsibility and assume no obligation in connection with any duties imposed upon the League by the peace treaties, unless in any particular case Congress has authorized such action.

The United States proposes that membership be opened to any self-governing state

IV. The United States proposes that Article I of the Covenant be construed and applied, or, if necessary, redrafted, so that admission to the League shall be assured by any self-governing State that wishes to join and that receives the favorable vote of two-thirds of the Assembly.

The continuing development of international law must be provided for

V. As a further condition of its participation in the work and counsels of the League, the United States asks that the Assembly and Council consent—or obtain authority—to begin collaboration for the revision and development of international law, employing, for this purpose, the aid of a commission of jurists. This Commission would be directed to formulate anew existing rules of the law of nations, to reconcile divergent opinions, to consider points hitherto inadequately provided for but vital to the maintenance of international justice, and in general to define the social rights and duties of States. The recommendations of the Commission would be presented from time to time, in proper form for consideration, to the Assembly as to a recommending if not a lawmaking body.

Among these conditions Numbers I and II have already been discussed. Number III is a logical consequence of the refusal of the United States Senate to ratify the treaty of Versailles, and of the settled policy of the United States which is characterized in the first reservation. Concerning Numbers IV and V this may be said:

Anything less than a world-conference, especially when Great Powers are excluded, must incur, in proportion to the exclusions, the suspicion of being an alliance, rather than a family of nations. The United States can render service in emphasizing this lesson, learned in the Hague Conference, and in thus helping to reconstitute the family of nations as it really is. Such a conference or assembly must obviously bear the chief responsibility for the development of new parts of the law of nations, devised to fit changed and changing conditions, to extend the sway of justice, and to help in preserving peace and security.

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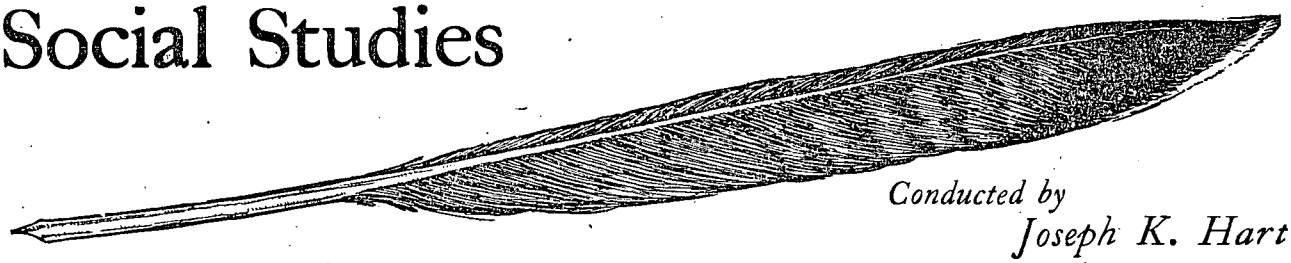
Social Studies



Conducted by
Joseph K. Hart

The Group as an Instrument of Action

AN ocean tide is a "force of nature": it swells landward from the deeps and beats with restless energy upon all exposed coasts. A wintry blizzard is a force of nature: it sweeps across the conti- striking down impartially the just with the unjust. A herd of American bison, on the stampede in the old days, was a force of nature: blindly it rolled across the prairie and, coming to a bluff or gorge, the foremost animals plunged blindly in, until the gorge might be filled with the dead! The particular animal had no more choice in the matter than has a drop of water in the tide, or a snowflake in a blizzard.

Most primitive groups exhibited something of this same quality: they were but little to be differentiated from other forces of nature. Descended from the immemorial past and pressing onward into an unchanging future, the primitive group was a phenomenon of nature that moved, now idly like a summer breeze, now irresistibly like a wintry blizzard, now blindly to the death like a stampeded herd. Jenghis Khan and Tamerlane, for example, had within themselves something of the unconscious fury and ferocity of the tides in the Bay of Fundy; but, at that, they were but symbols of the fury and ferocity of the Tatar hordes they led.

It is not to be assumed that a tide, or a blizzard, or a herd on the rampage has any intelligence, or any emotion, at the basis of its action. It is pure action, undeterred by feeling and in no wise "sicklied o'er with the pale cast of thought." Probably no human group ever exhibits action in such a pure form; but we shall miss the point to much of this argument if we fail to see that most primitive groups much of the time, and all primitive groups some of the time, express nothing that can be called thinking, and little that can be called emotion, but much that, in nature, is called force, and in humanity is called will! The primitive group is not, in the main, either an instrument of thoughtfulness or of emotion: it is an instrument of force, or action.

THIS is shown, first of all, in the subordination of the individual to the group: the group is a compact organ of power; the individual, as a cooperative will, or fragment of force, makes the group stronger; but as a center of thinking or emotion he becomes a point of disintegration. Hence, he must be nothing but a malleable bit of the group will.

The most universal illustration of this group tendency is seen in the war-band. When the group, primitive or modern, turns to war, it quickly becomes, as Graham Wallas has shown (notably in Our Social Inheritance), an instrument of nothing but action: it permits, publicly at least, no emotions save those official ones which indicate subordination to the group will; it countenances no thinking whatever, permitting only so much mental activity as may be necessary to remove the obstacles to the realization of the group purpose. A group that has abdicated its human character, including its humane emotions and its critical intelligence, becoming simply a "force of nature," is probably the most appalling physical phenomenon in the universe!

A strike offers, at times, a more illuminating illustration. Both sides of the conflict may abdicate all intelligence and all humanity and reduce themselves to "stubborn wills," from which there may be no escape short of starvation or bloodshed. We have the theory that to fight is nobler than to arbitrate; and the word "compromise" smacks a little of the dishonorable. We prefer, so we say, to "starve in honor rather than to feast in dishonor or by compromise with honor!"

BUT the same non-emotional, non-intelligent subordination to the drift-will of the ages appears in all our common activities, civic, religious, educational, as well as industrial. The method of the average committee is in point. The committee is expected to "bring in a report." A report might be supposed to imply study and investigation. But study and investigation are usually regarded as a "sheer waste of time." The chairman, or some henchman, appears at the committee meeting with a previously prepared statement. The statement is read while the chairman glowers; it is submitted for discussion while the chairman dares anyone to offer a single word of dissent. The "question" is then put:

"You have heard the reading of the proposed report of this committee; there being no further discussion, all in favor of this report will say "Aye":—the "Ayes" have it! The report as read will be submitted as the finding of this committee. The committee stands adjourned!"

With feeble variations this is the rule in committee meetings made up of "practical" men. No time is wasted. The committee "gets somewhere": no one knows just where, but somewhere. The boast of the practical man is, "We're on our way!" He cannot endure the thought of wasting time in "shilly-shally talk." He makes mistakes by acting without thinking. These he can understand. But he can neither understand nor endure mistakes made by men who stop to think.

The world drifted into the war, obedient to a "will to act." It "muddled through" the war. It is still muddling through: in parliaments and congresses, in legislatures and local committee meetings, it continues to muddle, obedient to that old folk-way will that held the old customs, no matter how often they had brought disaster, more dependable than any innovation, no matter how reasonable.

For action is native to man: he can act and still be natural. But thinking is mostly an acquired accomplishment, like wearing a monocle: few are able to do it gracefully, and they only after long practice. Most seem to feel themselves too awkward for any such accomplishment and they resolve to let such unnatural things alone.

And so the world is still ruled by will, not by intelligence—by the drift-will of the past, the old group will, the will to act no matter what the act may be. Our humane sentiments and the profound findings of science may protest; but upon this massive drift-will of the past neither sentiment nor science has, as yet, made any considerable impression. The human group is still primarily an instrument of action!

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Our Social Institutions
A Course for High Schools

IX. Racial Elements

From the time when Israel Zangwill published The Melting Pot to the beginning of the World War, most of us had assumed that America should welcome all who came to our shores to live; and that, by the processes of education, industry and participation in political life, all could be fused into actual membership in our American community life. With the war came the recognition of the fact that many racial groups, in all parts of the country, had not been melted into the common mass. Opinion as to the effect of these unassimilated groups upon the future of America ranges all the way from the most sombre foreboding to the most light-hearted optimism. But the time seems to have come to escape from emotional attitudes into intelligent understanding about these racial matters; or at least into the beginnings of such understanding. What are the elements in the problem?

1. What is "Americanism"?

Who was the first "American"? An Indian? Christopher Columbus? Captain John Smith? Governor Bradford? George Washington? When did America begin: in 1492? In 1776? In 1789? When did the last "American" come from Europe to America? When did the first "immigrant" come to America? When did the first "undesirable immigrant" come? Who are now the real "Americans"? Is Americanism a matter of race? Can no one be a good American unless he belongs to some special race? What race or races are acceptable? Can a Russian ever become a good American? How? If he can become an "American," what other races can share the process? How would you define "American"?

2. Unassimilated Groups

What is meant by the "assimilation of the immigrant"? Does it include changes in language, dress, customs, religion, manners, ideas, attitudes of mind? When an immigrant has been "assimilated" what does he think of his former land? Of America? Of our laws? Of the American dollar? What racial groups remain "unassimilated" in your community? Why have they remained so: do they prefer it? Has the community wanted them? What are the largest unassimilated groups in America? How do the various races differ as to their capacity for "assimilation"? Does "assimilation" mean the same thing as "Americanization"?

3. Present Racial Configurations

What racial group has settled in the territory of the United States before 1750? Where were these various groups located? Were they all "desirable stocks"? When did the "undesirable stocks" begin to come over? What are those "undesirable stocks"? Where have they settled? In what numbers? To what extent have they remained "unassimilated"? Have all the "desirable stocks" been completely assimilated? Where are the various unassimilated groups now located? Are these all "undesirable" stocks? What makes a stock undesirable? When we talk of the "desirable" and the "undesirable," are we talking in terms of intelligence or in terms of emotion?

What are the elements that make up the "American ideal"?

References:

The Declaration of Independence; Preamble and Bill of Rights in the Constitution.

Edward A. Ross, The Old World in the New. Century Co.

Edward A. Steiner, On the Trail of the Immigrant. Fleming H. Revell.

Robert E. Park and Herbert A. Miller, Old World Traits Transplanted. Harper Brothers.

Questions on
Current Issues

The Price of Peace

William James, the psychologist, used to say that at least 95 per cent of the activities of even the most intelligent man are controlled by habit. Less intelligent people are more completely under the control of habit. The average community is quite fully caught in the drift of custom and tradition. Here and there vague "ideas" play over the surface of this drift, like phosphorescence on the surface of the tide. Now and then one of these ideas sinks in, takes hold upon the "mass," and diverts by ever so little the direction of the drift. Is "Universal Peace" such an idea?

1. Obstacles to Peace

What part of the life of your community is controlled by habit and custom? Does your community speak of itself as "The Hub," or by any similar title? What are the dominating "interests" of your community: local, personal and social affairs? Conflicts with other competing communities? National movements? International affairs? What changes, if any, in the direction of world-interests, tolerance, social or racial understandings, or international cooperation have appeared within your community in the last five years? Did the war make your community more favorable or less favorable to violence as a means of settling disputes? Can questions of international relationships be freely discussed in your community? Can one of your citizens advocate the recognition of Russia or the defense of Germany without incurring social ostracism? If a new idea should come to your town, what would be done about it?

2. The Possible Meanings of Peace

If a world-peace plan should include the development of free trade around the world and the elimination of all tariff barriers, could such a plan be freely discussed in your community? Or has your community "made up its mind" on that question? If the plan should call for the organization of cooperative industry in place of the present competitive system, would your community be interested? If it should imply the need of a new type of education, would your community listen to the argument? If it should mean the development of new forms of international religious understanding and cooperation, would your community care to go into the merits of the case? If it should call for membership in some league of peoples or of nations, would your politicians and statesmen permit the suggestion to come before the people for discussion?

3. Can the Idea of Peace Become Reality?

Does your community want world-peace? Do you expect to get it without making any changes in your industry, business, social life, politics, education, or religion? Is war merely an "idea" that can be driven out by the idea of "peace"? Or is war a reality—in the habits, feelings, emotions, institutions and vested interests of the peoples of the world, including the people of your community? Can the world, including your community, change from a war basis to a peace basis without changing its habits, customs, institutions and other modes of organization? If so, why have we not made, why do we not make, the change? If not, what changes could your community be induced to make for the sake of the peace of the world? Have you any individuals who would be willing to organize their lives on a peace basis? Would your schools be willing to change to a peace basis? Could your churches make the change? To what extent can your community be counted upon to make itself over in accordance with the provisions of the peace plans now before the world?

References:

pp. 372, 373, 403.

The books mentioned on this page may be obtained through The Survey Book Department.

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COMMUNICATIONS

Race Defects and Alcohol

To the Editor: The only serious exception made by Professor Jennings (The Survey, December 15, 1923, p. 309) to Dr. Laughlin's logic in relation to the restriction of immigration favorable to the north-west of Europe has to do with the low rating of the Irish in the columns of insanity and dependency.

Any biological study of the Irish stock must recognize that it has suffered a special type of injury from an adventitious chemical. The effect of alcohol upon them in America has probably been more severe than in the old country. Insanity and dependency are two of its most clearly recognized products.

Prohibition, at this early stage in the great experiment, has proved that it can bring about very marked reductions not only in insanity and dependency but in various forms of crime occasioned by alcoholism with which Irish names have been largely associated in the public mind.

The testimony of racial leaders, themselves not favorable to the principle of prohibition, indicates that it is bringing remarkable benefits among the mass of people of Irish origin.

As an advocate of prohibition, one of my chief motives has been the conviction that if the Irish in America could be freed of their chief enemy, they would find and utilize such an opportunity as they have not had since the days of their early civilization to contribute unique and precious results of genius to the world.

On account of the proved effect of alcohol on the germ cell, a generation or two must pass before the full measure of such possibility could be realized. Within that time, the lesson will be learned by Ireland itself.

It should be remembered, meanwhile, that the Irish do less, probably, than any other racial group to spread the effects of sexual immorality, either directly or by commercialized promotion, through the community. Now that the liquor business, as an offense against law and order, has so largely passed out of their hands, their position with relation to the "twin evil" will be all the more to their credit.

In this general connection, do the leaders of some of the immigrant groups that are being discriminated against by the government's restrictive policy, realize that the activity of many of their congeners in the dissemination of alcoholism and other forms of demoralization throughout the community at large is developing right among the people of the rank and file a broad undercurrent of racial feeling such as has not been known in our cities before?

For one thing, this mounting revulsion is going to bring strong support, from quarters previously not inclined to prohibition, for necessary state legislation and drastic local enforcement, as the only method at hand of getting rid of an ever-present, unbearable disgrace and danger.

Robert A. Woods

South End House, Boston

Will Gandhi Die in Prison?

To the Editor: I have received letters from India telling me that Mahatma Gandhi is far from well. He now weighs less than one hundred pounds and although he is cheerful, long confinement has seriously affected his health. It is desirable that some effort be made by those who admire Mahatma Gandhi and his teachings of non-violence, to urge the British government to release him as soon as possible.

There is no reason to believe that the British government will release him unless international public opinion is mobilized to force the issue. British public opinion is not much concerned with Gandhi. British statesmen think that as long as they can have good relations with Turkey by making concessions to the Turks and thus keep the Mohammedan world contented, British rule in India is safe. The British government prefers the sword of Kemal Pasha to the invincible arms of Gandhi—the power of folded arms and dependence upon the spiritual power of non-cooperation—so Gandhi lies in jail and none among the British statesmen pays attention to it.

The Christian world seems dead, so far as its spiritual power is concerned, because it wants to solve world evils by mechanical means of organizations and it pays no attention to the man who, according to Sherwood Eddy of the International Y. M. C. A., has demonstrated the life of nearest approach to that of Christ, and who is now rotting in jail without any effective protest from the Christian world. It is a credit to the Indian Christians that they asked for Gandhi's release. May I not ask all other Christians who see the hope of the world in assertion of the Christ spirit, to appeal both to the King of England and Emperor of India, and to Earl Reading, Governor-General of India (who belongs to the oppressed Jewish people) and to request that they make use of their power and sense of decency, towards releasing Gandhi before it is too late.

Gandhi must not die in jail! Gandhi is not afraid to die, nor is he complaining of ill health and discomfort, but the world needs him, and you should help towards his freedom.

Taraknath Das

Washington, D. C.

In a Texas Prison

To the Editor: The case of a group of men now in prison in Texas should interest your readers.

More than ten years ago, a party of Mexicans, with one citizen of the United States, Charles Cline, started for Mexico to take part in an insurrection there. The Texas authorities tried to keep them from crossing the border. There was a running fight of several days, and in the course of it a Mexican who had been appointed a deputy sheriff was killed. It is not known with certainty who killed him; but on account of it the whole party, when captured, were sentenced to life-imprisonment for murder. They have already served more than ten years. All appeals for their pardon have been fruitless.

It is believed that this severity is due not so much to their having killed a Mexican as to the finding among their baggage a banner with the motto "Land and Liberty": in short, to their radical opinions.

Earnest efforts are being made to obtain their pardon, especially that of Cline, the only citizen of the United States among them. He is described by those who knew him before his imprisonment as a fine, clean, courageous young labor leader. The other men now in prison are Jesus U. Rangel, Jesus Gonzales, Abram Cisneros, Pedro Perales and Leonardo L. Vasquez. Executive clemency has been asked for not only by various prominent persons and labor organizations in the United States but by President Obregon, the legislatures of several Mexican States, and the Mexican Federation of Labor.

Those who feel that these men have suffered enough are urged to write to Governor Pat N. Neff, Austin, Texas, and join in the request for pardon. Alice Stone Blackwell

Dorchester, Mass.

Back to the Parent

To the Editor: I have just completed reading Dr. Haven Emerson's excellent article in The Survey for November 15. The central idea of placing the responsibility upon the parents where it primarily belongs is one of the greatest importance and I am glad to have it so forcibly expressed. In our work we came early to this point of view. Our nutrition program is fundamentally concerned with working direct with the parents. There is no organization, worker or institution which can take their place.

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Our statement of the four forces which must all be in operation to get the child well, those of the home, the school, medical care, and the child's own interest rests the keystone of it all in the home. Every time we check up a child we check up the parents. Our nutrition class system with its emphasis upon cooperation and reasonable competition centers in the parents.

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WILLIAM R. P. EMERSON, M.D.
Nutrition Clinics for Delicate Children
Boston, Mass.

Better Be Criminal

TO THE EDITOR: I have no doubt but that Mr. Benjamin's article entitled Indiana's Insanity in the September 15 issue of the Midmonthly has excited considerable comment on the part of a large number of people who do not always find the practice of looking facts squarely in the face particularly pleasant. I can not speak from first-hand information, of course, for any portions of Indiana outside of Allen County, where Fort Wayne is situated.

Mr. Benjamin has, however, given not only a graphic, but an entirely accurate account of things as they are in Allen County. As a matter of fact people thought to be insane are frequently confined in our jail for considerable periods of time pending examination, and on account of the crowded conditions of our state hospitals for the insane and the fact that the quota for Allen County in all of these institutions is entirely used, we have no recourse except to give patients such care as we can either in the Allen County Infirmary, or the jail, unless they or their relatives have suffcient means to pay for their care in private sanatoria.

I have often in perfect sincerity made the statement that if I were to become insane while a resident of Allen County, I would very much prefer to be in the class of the criminally insane or of insane criminals on account of the fact that our institution for the care of this class of the mentally diseased affords so much better care than our local institutions, and there is not the long waiting period for commitment. Insane criminals also are not returned to Allen County for care in our jail or infirmary when found to be incurable.

F. D. PRESTON
Executive Secretary, Council of Social Agencies
Fort Wayne, Indiana

TO THE EDITOR: May I commend Paul L. Benjamin for writing, and you for publishing, the article on Indiana's Insanity, in your issue of September 15? A few of us have known for some time the deplorable conditions in our state in regard to the treatment of the insane, and we have endeavored to arouse public opinion which would wipe this shame from our state. We in Indiana have always been proud of record in social work, and many would cover up this lapse to the conditions which actuated Dorothea Dix in her great work for a humane treatment of the insane. It hurts to have our sores exposed, but, to remedy conditions, we need some pressure from outside opinion. This will be encouraged by such a brave article as this by Mr. Benjamin.

FRANK S. C. WICHE
Minister, All Souls Unitarian Church
Indianapolis, Ind.

Joy in Work—in Jail

TO THE EDITOR: Your October article "The Prisoner: Public Servant" inspires a few questions about the state-use system of prison labor. Notice this statement:

State and city institutions consume each year approximately $700,000,000 of supplies. The prison population can produce perhaps $50,000,000. . . . Every prisoner who is physically and mentally capable will be employed, self-supporting, and able to support his family.

The question arises, will the prisoner in this big business have really any choice as to the *kind* of work he will be obliged to do?

(*Continued on page* 425)

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Communications

(*Continued from page* 423)

Granted the prisoner is mentally and physically capable, say of driving sewing machines for a new combine where the proceeds of his toil go to profits on state-use commodities, after deducting the cost of his keep, and a sum set apart for his family, will these above considerations, state use, payment for keep and family, prove of vital importance in changing the criminal character? There are two types of character, those resembling clocks, working on regular beats, repeating the same mode of action continuously; and those of the creative order, working in irregular beats, on irregular rhythm, producing work which always varies, more or less.

Many criminals—gun-men, swindlers, burglars, etc., have fine minds of this creative order. To tie down these men to endless mechanical jobs ruins and maddens them, or drives them to vengeance. When prison wardens engage in these great state use enterprises, buying, selling, contracting, with other states, will they not meet the very same old temptations to speed up, overwork the prisoners? With a big contract to meet on record time, what consideration will the warden be likely to have for the prisoner under his control, provided he seems mentally and physically capable of the job?

He may do the job over and over without in the least changing his bad criminal habits. Professor John Dewey says that to change a bad habit it is necessary to use the elements of the bad habit in a new, more generous and more comprehensive scheme of service. This requires individual treatment of those who have bad habits. Let us consider individual character building as the chief aim in the question of prison labor.

Prison slavery and prison despotism are temperamentally incompatible with the reformation of the individual prisoner. The elements of free choice, free initiation, self-expression and many other considerations are necessary to change a criminal into an honest man.

GENEVIEVE A. COWLES

And That's That

TO THE EDITOR: About Glueck's article on The Nervous Child and several erroneous suppositions.

Nervous children dodge because they're used to blows; because their adults have shouted and thrown things at them; because they are used to scenes of violence, have no playthings, not enough sleep because of infants crying; *not* for other reasons....

Only the adult *vulgarity* that pretends *humor* is what contaminates children. Keep your hands off them; let them keep good, so they were born.

J. GARLAND

Somerville, Mass.

The Oldest of Human Arts

(*Continued from page* 377)

religious edifices and programs, and a multitude of other things for the enrichment of the community. He proceeds on the theory that the rich must provide the capital funds for social progress and that the every-day citizen should provide the current costs.

Is this only a dream? I expect to live long enough to see it fairly well approximated here and there in America. Why? History. When a city can increase its givers of a dollar and up, in six years, from 8,000 to 190,000; when it can teach men who did not think of giving three years ago to give a dollar a year now as a matter of habit; when it can teach men who once gave a hundred dollars a year grudgingly to give ten thousand dollars happily, I see no fundamental obstacle to further progress. The processes now in operation have an irresistible forward swing. There are great difficulties to be overcome. New methods must be tried in the fire of experience, with heartaches and disappointments as well as triumphs. But we are on a highway that goes forward and leads eventually into some expansion of giving that will approximate the picture Mr. Adams has drawn. That is why I am enthusiastic over Mr. Adams' chart; and I hard boiled my enthusiasm for this sort of thing a long time ago.

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COOPERATIVE PLACEMENT SERVICE. Social workers, secretaries, superintendents, matrons, housekeepers, dietitians, cafeteria managers. Miss Richards' Bureau, 68 Barnes Street, Providence, R. I.

WORKERS WANTED

WANTED: Worker with case experience by organization supervising Jewish delinquent boys. A college graduate with experience as organizer preferred. Give training, experience, references, and salary expected. 4691 SURVEY.

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TEACHERS wanted for public and private schools, colleges and universities. Education Service, Steger Building, Chicago; Southern Building, Washington; 1254 Amsterdam Ave., New York.

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December 17, 1923

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CURRENT PAMPHLETS

Listings fifty cents a line for four insertions, copy to remain unchanged.

THE SALVATION OR WRECK OF EUROPE. AMERICA'S SHARE THEREIN. By Austin E. Griffiths, Judge Superior Court, Seattle, Washington. Forty-two pages. Send stamp for copy.

TWENTY QUESTIONS ABOUT THE PROPOSED EQUAL RIGHTS AMENDMENT OF THE WOMAN'S PARTY. Compiled by Florence Kelley, National Consumer's League, 156 Fifth Ave., New York City. Price $2.00 a hundred.

THE COMMUNITY AND ITS LEISURE—How to Fill the Gap. Philip L. Seman, Jewish People's Institute, 1258 Taylor Street, Chicago, Illinois. Single copy $.50—113 pages.

TEN-CENT MEALS by Florence Nesbitt, 44 pp. (10 cents). HOW JOHN AND MARY LIVE and Save on $35 a Week—a weekly budget plan (10 cents); Weekly Allowance Book (10 cents). Am. School Home Economics, 849 East 58 St., Chicago.

CREDIT UNION. Complete free information on request to Roy F. Bergengren, 5 Park Square, Boston, Mass.

FINANCIAL FEDERATIONS, by William J. Norton, director of the Detroit Community Union. A reprint in handy pamphlet form of a series of articles published in recent Midmonthly issues of The Survey. Price 25 cents; 6 copies $1; 25 copies $3; postpaid. The Survey, 112 East 19th Street, New York, N. Y.

WELFARE FEDERATIONS, by Edward T. Devine, contributing editor of The Survey. A reprint of four articles from The Survey. Price 50 cents; 3 copies $1; 25 copies $6, postpaid. The Survey, 112 East 19th Street, New York, N. Y.

THE UNPRINTABLE TEXT BOOK. A handy pamphlet reprint of an article by Prof. Joseph K. Hart, Editor of The Survey's Education Department. Free to teachers on request. To others, 10 cents. The Survey, 112 East 19th St., New York, N. Y.

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THE SALVATION OR WRECK OF EUROPE, AMERICA'S SHARE THEREIN. By Austin E. Griffiths. Seattle Union Record, Seattle, Washington.

GENERAL PARALYSIS IN NEW YORK STATE 1913-1922. By Horatio M. Pollock. Reprinted from The State Hospital Quarterly, November, 1923. State Hospitals Press, Utica, N. Y.

LEGAL EDUCATION. Comparative Professional Statistics, Current Bar Admission Requirements, List of Law Schools, Restatement of American Law. Advance extract from the eighteenth annual report of the President of the Carnegie Foundation. The Merrymount Press, Boston.

DIAGNOSIS AND TREATMENT OF YOUNG SCHOOL FAILURES. By Helen T. Woolley and Elizabeth Ferris. Prepared under the auspices of the Helen S. Trounstine Foundation, Cincinnati. Published by Bureau of Education, Department of Interior, Washington Government Printing Office. Price 10 cents.

DANIEL DE LEON. By Olive M. Johnson. New York Labor News Company, 45 Rose Street, New York, N. Y. Price 15 cents.

CHILD LABOR, Analysis of Work Permits Issued During Biennium Ending June 30, 1922. By A. L. Urick, Commissioner of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, State of Iowa, Des Moines.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS, Trade Union Statistics for Biennium Ending December 31, 1921. By A. L. Urick, Commissioner of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, State of Iowa, Des Moines.

WAR, Its Causes, Consequences, and Cure. By Kirby Page. George H. Doran Company, New York. Price 15 cents.

EUROPEAN IMPRESSIONS. By Otto H. Kahn. An Address delivered before the Faculty and Students of Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn. November 15, 1923.

WHY NOT TRY CHRISTIANITY? By Samuel Z. Batten, Chairman Social Service Commission, Northern Baptist Convention. George H. Doran Company. Price 15 cents.

VIOLENCE IN THE COAL FIELDS, A series of news releases summarizing briefs filed with the United States Coal Commission by Counsel for Bituminous Operators' Special Committee or co-operating organizations. Issued by Bituminous Operators' Special Committee, Southern Building, Washington, D. C.

UNEMPLOYMENT AND CHILD WELFARE, A study made in a middle-western and an eastern city during the industrial depression of 1921 and 1922. By Emma Octavia Lundberg. Children's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor. Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington. Price 20 cents.

DECISIONS OF COURTS AND OPINIONS AFFECTING LABOR, 1922. By Lindley D. Clark and Daniel F. Callahan. Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor. Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington. Price 50 cents.

CONSOLIDATION OF SCHOOLS AND TRANSPORTATION OF PUPILS. By J. F. Abel. Bureau of Education, Department of the Interior, Bulletin, 1923, No. 41. Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington. Price 25 cents.

CANCER AND CIVILIZATION, an address read before the Belgian National Cancer Congress. By Frederick L. Hoffman. The Prudential Insurance Company of America, Newark, N. J.

EUROPE IN 1923. By James G. McDonald. Foreign Policy Association, 9 East 45th Street, New York, N. Y.

THE PUEBLO LAND PROBLEM, prepared by a committee for the New Mexico Association on Indian Affairs, Santa Fe, New Mexico.

A SYLLABUS OF MUNICIPAL ADMINISTRATION. By Lent D. Upson, Director Detroit Bureau of Governmental Research and professiorial lecturer on municipal administration, University of Michigan. Bureau of Government, University of Michigan.

THE FINANCIAL OPERATIONS OF COMMUNITY CHESTS IN AMERICAN CITIES. By J. R. Douglas, Department of Research and Service, Security Trust and Savings Bank, Los Angeles, Cal.

DRAMATICS FOR HEALTH TEACHING. By Harriet Wedgwood. Bureau of Education, Department of the Interior, Bulletin No. 13. Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

THE ARKANSAS FAMILY SERIES, A New Home for Arkansas, The Business of Living, Prospects for Arkansas, The Needs of a Baby, Concerning Jean, The Coming of the Baby, A New Citizen for Arkansas, Concerning the Baby, The Child from 2 to 6 Years of Age, The Bureau of Child Hygiene, State Board of Health, Little Rock, Arkansas.

CHART OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS AND THE PERMANENT COURT OF INTERNATIONAL JUSTICE, compiled by Courtenay Crocker. Published by World Peace Foundation, 40 Mt. Vernon St., Boston. Also distributed through the Foreign Policy Association, 9 East 45th Street, New York.

OUTLAWRY OF WAR: WHAT IT IS AND IS NOT. By John Dewey. Reprinted for the American Committee for the Outlawry of War, 76 Monroe St., Chicago, from The New Republic, October 3rd and 24th, 1923. Foreign Policy Association, 9 East 45th St., New York, N. Y.

STUDY OF COUNTRY CONVALESCENT TREATMENT OF ONE HUNDRED NEUROPSYCHIATRIC PATIENTS. By N. F. Cummings. North Atlantic District American Association Hospital Social Workers.

REPORT OF THE INTERNATIONAL PEACE CONGRESS held at Hague under the auspices of the International Federation of Trade Unions, December 10-15, 1922. International Federation of Trade Unions, Amsterdam.

BULLETIN BOARD

KENTUCKY STATE CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Louisville, January 13-16. Secretary, Lucy W. Warren, Family Service Organization, 215 E. Walnut St., Louisville.

PENNSYLVANIA TUBERCULOSIS SOCIETY: Annual Meeting. Penn-Harris Hotel, Harrisburg, January 15-17. Executive Secretary, Arthur M. Dewees, 10 South 18th St., Philadelphia.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE MIDDLE WEST: Annual Convention, Hotel Chase, St. ouis, Missouri. January 16-19. Secretary, Leonard W. Wahlstrom, 1711 Estes Ave., Chicago, Illinois.

STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Providence, January 21. President, Amy Allison, Providence, Rhode Island.

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WANTED: Copies of the February 1 Survey and Survey Graphic, April 1 Survey and Survey Graphic, June 15 and August 1, 1923, Survey Graphic. Unexpected demand has wiped out our stock. Subscribers who do not need their issues for future use will confer a real favor by returning these numbers to us for use in libraries and colleges. The Survey, 112 East 19 Streeet, New York, N. Y.

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SOCIAL WORK SHOPTALK

COMMUNITY RIVALRY is rampant in Kentucky. Mrs. Cecilia P. Deubig, of the life-saving service of the American Red Cross, tells of a Kentucky rooster who, strolling along a road one day, came upon a turkey's egg. Astounded by its size he carefully rolled it back to his barnyard and assembled the hens.

"Ladies," he said, "I show you this egg not as a reflection on your past performances, but merely to let you know what is being done in other communities."

TWO NEW state conferences of social work, in Wyoming and Montana, have been added to the list. It is to the American Red Cross in these states that the credit for their organization is due. Strongly organized Red Cross chapters, carrying on home service work for service men and their families, have made people see the need for similar service for civilian families. Many trained social workers have been secured by chapters to direct their social work activities. Red Cross field representatives travelling through these states sensed the desire on the part of the leaders for an adequate organization which would bring together individuals doing similar work for mutual help and discussion.

The project was brought forward during the summer at Red Cross state conferences, attended by representatives of all the leading organizations in Wyoming and Montana. Their meetings, held at Thermopolis, Wyoming, and at Great Falls, Montana, brought together large groups of local people interested in social work, together with state, city and county officials.

The temporary committee appointed at Thermopolis included Dr. E. C. Jones, superintendent of the State School for Feebleminded, Lander, chairman; Mrs. B. B. Brooke, Casper; Mrs. P. J. Quealy, chairman, Lincoln County Chapter, American Red Cross, Kemmerer; Amy G. Abbott, executive secretary, Laramie Red Cross; Mrs. A. C. Allen, Riverton, and Thomas Temple, field repersentative, American Red Cross, Chicago, as secretary. This committee after several preliminary conferences met at Rock Springs to elect officers and to organize a permanent body. Dr. Jones was elected president, Mrs. Brooks, vice president, Miss Abbott, secretary, and Mrs. Allen, treasurer.

The Montana organizing committee, headed by Dr. Hazel D. Bonness, director of the bureau of child hygiene, state department of health, met at Helena and perfected the state organization. Dr. Bonness was elected permanent president; Prof. S. Walker Hayes, department of economics, University of Montana, at Missoula, vice president; Mrs. Annie Reeman, Red Cross Chairman, Volunteer Service of Billings, second vice president; Mrs. John A. Rowand, Red Cross Liaison officer, U. S. Veterans' Bureau, Helena, secretary; and Mrs. Lena Cullen, Helena, treasurer.

Both conferences are seeking memberships which shall be representative of all communities, agencies, departments and organizations interested in public welfare, social service, health and education. Effort is also being concentrated on the formation of special departments for study and research. The next meetings will be held in the spring at which time members will have an opportunity to discuss programs for the following year.

THE STATE COUNCIL of Social Agencies of Georgia has taken over the publication of a monthly magazine devoted to the interests which it is promoting. School and Home, the original title, has been changed to School, Home and Community. The magazine is under the management of Burr Blackburn and is on a self-supporting basis, with a subscription price of $1.00 a year and several pages of advertising. Its specific purpose is to keep parents and teachers informed regarding the plans and progress of statewide social agencies. The council is composed of "thirty-three social agencies which are endeavoring through the council to maintain effective cooperation in making Georgia a better place to rear a child." It is unique in that it employs a paid executive secretary, Burr Blackburn, who was formerly secretary of the state department of public welfare.

IT IS Burton J. Hendrick's plan to expand the first hundred pages of the two volume Life and Letters of Walter Hines Page into a separate volume. Readers of the Life and Letters will recall that nine-tenths of the space is given up to Mr. Page's overseas correspondence, as ambassador to Great Britain, and readers of The Survey's review will recall that we told of a bonfire at Garden City which destroyed most of the memorabilia of Mr. Page's early life. None the less a large number of letters and other writings have fortunately come to hand and give in detail his ideas on the upbuilding of the South, the Negro question, education, literature, country life and social questions in general. These are being gathered by Mr. Hendrick into the new volume which will "make clear precisely how this remarkable character developed." They will be published first in the World's Work and will be watched for not only by all friends of Mr. Page but by all Americans interested in the wide range of his domestic activities.

THE CHILDREN'S BUREAU announces that Dr. S. Josephine Baker has been appointed consulting director in maternity and infancy and child hygiene. Dr. Baker organized the child hygiene division of the New York City Health Department in 1908, as part of twenty years' service for the mothers and babies of New York. Dr. Florence E. Kraker, of Philadelphia, just back from a year in China, where she was on the teaching staff of the Margaret-Williamson Hospital at Shanghai, has been appointed specialist in maternal hygiene and associate director of the maternity and infancy division of the bureau.

JOHN H. FINLEY has become president of the National Child Welfare Association.

LOUIS BROWNLOW, a commissioner of the District of Columbia during the war years, and city manager of Petersburg, Va., for three years since, has recently been appointed city manager of Knoxville, Tenn.

FROM J. B. COLLINGS WOODS, chartered accountant, of New York, comes the following special bulletin: Wide-awake officers of social agencies and the like are familiar with the provisions of section 214 (a) 11 of the Revenue Act of 1921 under which an individual making a contribution to a corporation or fund organized and operated exclusively for religious, charitable, scientific, literary or educational purposes may deduct the amount, up to 15 per cent of his net income, in his income tax return. The advantage which social agencies may derive from that provision has long been exploited.

There is, however, a recent ruling of the Income Tax Unit (II—23—1085; I. T. 1776) which might well be called to the attention of those who intend to bequeath a capital sum to an organization. The summary of the ruling reads: "The donor, by written instrument, gave, first, a life estate in bonds to the beneficiary, and second a remainder to a church. The gift to the church is within the provisions of section 214 (a) 11."

The point is, and to appreciate it to the full the entire section and ruling should be studied, that if instead of holding property until it may pass under a will to a certain fund, an individual is willing to make the gift now, subject only to a provision regarding the use of the income from the property donated until his death, he may deduct the present cash value of the gift in the same way and to the same extent as if he made a present cash contribution.

IT IS NOT OFTEN that the Middle West raises its voice on the subject of universal brotherhood, but Harry Coffin Fellow of the editorial staff of the Wichita Plaindealer is a notable exception. His booklet of poems, Odes to Fellowship, has been recently published, and of his middle-western citizenship there can be no doubt. He was born in the vicinity of the "Old Swimming Hole" and has spent more than forty years as a teacher in the schools and colleges of Indiana, Kansas and Oklahoma, for several years as a professor of history in the Northwestern State Normal of Oklahoma and of education in Friends University, Wichita, Kansas. Some of the post-war poems included in this collection first appeared in The Survey.

JAMES F. JACKSON, general secretary of the Associated Charities of Cleveland, has become Family Welfare Secretary of the Welfare Federation, in which capacity he will undertake the development of a functional group to include protective and child-caring organizations, institutions for the care of the aged, and the family service agencies. Edward D. Lynde of Milwaukee has come to serve as assistant general secretary of the Associated Charities, in the expectation that with his help Mr. Jackson will be sufficiently relieved in his own office to devote half his time to the federation.

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MRS. MARTHA J. MEGEE has resigned as assistant secretary of the Children's Aid Society of Pennsylvania to join the staff of the state department of welfare. She will work with Poor Boards throughout the state and with social service departments of state-aided hospitals, and will help to develop social service in connection with state-owned mental and surgical hospitals. Irene Liggett will succeed her at the Children's Aid Society. Miss Liggett was district superintendent for the Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity when she was called to St. Louis in 1921. Her share in building up the service of the St. Louis Provident Association has already been commented on in The Survey; she comes home now to Philadelphia to give courses in the Pennsylvania School for Social and Health Work and to assist in the training and supervision of new workers in the Children's Aid Society.

JAMES BRONSON REYNOLDS, successively divinity student, settlement worker, municipal officer, civic leader, sociologist, lawyer and criminologist, was distinctive for pioneer service on the frontiers between these separate fields of effort. Through his direction, as headworker, of the University Settlement in New York he won Mayor Low's interest and confidence; he was appointed the mayor's secretary and later marshal, and thereafter played a prominent part in the fight of the Citizens' Union and fusion organization for clean government. Roosevelt as governor made him a member of the New York Tenement House Commission; as president, sent him to Chicago to study the stockyards, and drew on his municipal experience by making him special adviser on local problems of the District of Columbia. From 1910 to 1913 Mr. Reynolds was an assistant district attorney in New York. He shared later, as counsel, in the work of the American Social Hygiene Association, and at the time of his death was president of the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology.

THE American Association for Organizing Family Social Work has recently appointed two new field workers to its staff. Josephine C. Brown is to work in Indiana, Kentucky, Tennessee, Arkansas, Louisiana, Mississippi, Alabama, Georgia, Florida and South Carolina. Miss Brown is a graduate of Bryn Mawr. She was a teacher for several years, then tried her hand at running a farm—a useful experience, she feels, for any rural social worker. She worked in the St. Paul United Charities and later became general secretary of the Dakota Welfare Association at South St. Paul. Miss Brown distinguished herself as a member of Miss Richmond's Institute in 1922, and that same year presented a paper at the National Conference. Her headquarters will be Louisville, Kentucky. Annie I. Gerry is to be field worker for New York and the New England states. Miss Gerry is a New Englander and a graduate of Smith College. She began her training with the Boston Family Welfare Society and was a district secretary there for six years. In 1916 she became general secretary of the Springfield, Massachusetts society—later organizing and directing the Red Cross Home Service work as well. She resigned this dual position in 1919. In 1921 she became associated with the Veterans' Bureau work of the American Red Cross in Boston and a year later became liaison representative of the Red Cross.

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REALITIES IN EUROPE'S REVIVAL

Other Features of Special Interest

DOING IT TOGETHER By James P. and Agnes D. Warbasse
The new significance of cooperative societies in the United States.

THROUGH THE LOOKING-GLASS AT WASHINGTON By Elmer Davis
Walter J. Woof's observations on the Great American People.

WHAT THE WAR VETERANS GET By Robert M. Field
What other countries are doing for their ex-soldiers.

CECIL'S FIGHT FOR DISARMAMENT By Wilson Harris
A British correspondent's sketch of Lord Robert Cecil and his work.

EAST AND WEST—CONFLICT OR COOPERATION? By Charles Merz
The beginning of a stimulating discussion of a world problem.

LYAUTEY—AFRICANUS By Pierre de Lanux
A character study of a great French colonial governor.

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The Kaiser was legally within his rights in 1914, for war has never been made illegal. He has not been punished; for according to law, he committed no crime.

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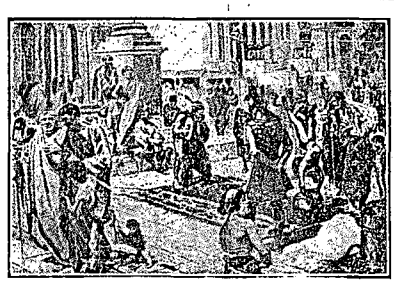
Can all wars, offensive and defensive, be made illegal—a crime against civilization?
Or—



The Forum of Ancient Rome

If some wars are to be made crimes and others not, how can we determine just what "classification" of war is to be?

Is outlawry of war a mere slogan, or can it be made practical?

Whether you are on the affirmative or negative side of the question, the answer to which may affect our lives, liberty, and happiness, you will find much that is new, vital, and thought-producing in the debate between Salmon Oliver Levinson and Jesse Siddall Reeves in the January issue of

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